FIELD METHODS

IN

PETROLEUM GEOLOGY

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PREFACE

The rapid development of the oil industry in the past few years, together with the general recognition of the aid which can be given by geology, both to the exploration and to the development of oil lands, created a sudden and unprecedented demand for specially trained geologists, a demand which could not be immediately filled. The exigencies of powerful competition usually require that any given piece of work be done with a minimum of delay, with such forces as are immediately available. of this and because the fees paid were attractive to some who had neither the preliminary training nor, in some cases, the proper integrity, much poor work has been done. Competent geologists, however, have responded strongly to the demand and in a few years time have practically eliminated the undesirable elements and have so raised the standard of ability and integrity that their profession now ranks on an equal basis with any other branch of engineering or geologic work. Those not familiar with the conditions, even including geologists who are engaged exclusively in other branches of the profession, fail to appreciate what the oil geologist has accomplished and how proficient he has become in the analysis of those structural conditions found in the oil This proficiency is due largely to the development of new fields. and specialized methods and to the adapation of old methods to the new needs. It is with those methods that this book is concerned.

The authors appreciate the fact that there are already on the market a number of comprehensive treatises dealing with the theories of origin and accumulation of oil and gas, and that there is nothing sufficiently new at the present time to warrant another general treatise on these phases of the subject. There is apparent, however, a notable lack of any satisfactory systematic disPREFACE

cussion of the minutiæ of field procedure, as it applies to this highly specialized branch of engineering geology. The present work was prepared in an effort to fill this gap. The book makes no attempt to give a popular presentation of field procedure. It is written for those who have at least moderate familiarity with the fundamental principles of geology, surveying, and mathematics, including at least trigonometry.

In the introduction, are summed up briefly and concisely the various methods of oil accumulation, as they are ordinarily conceived. This summary infers a knowledge of general geology and lithology, and is presented as a basis for the discussions of field methods, since most of the field work has to do with the location of various structural features.

Chapter I describes the instruments commonly used in the field work of the petroleum geologist; Chapter II outlines instrument methods in general use; in Chapter III are discussed the various geologic criteria that are used in correlating beds and identifying structures; and Chapter IV is devoted to the personnel of the field party, to the actual field procedure in reconnaissance and detailing, and to the preparation of the map and final report.

It is desired to emphasize the fact that there are often several excellent methods for securing and recording the geologic data required in oil and gas development. Practice is not uniform; it may vary from one district to another or from one survey to another in the same district. The geologist in charge is constantly called upon to select that method of procedure which he thinks best for the time, the place, the information desired, and the conditions under which the work must be done.

It is patent that in carrying on detailed work the best results are to be obtained when the geologist and the instrument man each know the general principles of the other's work. Too often the instrument man makes poor or needless set-ups, while the geologist in turn is inclined to scorn a knowledge of the details of instrument work and to fail to grasp the proper relation between speed and accuracy which should govern the work. The general features of both types of work are therefore given.

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Mr. Cox is largely responsible for the chapters on instruments and instrument methods and jointly responsible for the rest; Mr. Dake is jointly responsible for the chapters on the identification of structure and field operations and has aided throughout; and Mr. Muilenburg is jointly responsible for the appendix and has also aided throughout.

The authors appreciate that the list of methods given is not complete. It has been said that if one waits until the manuscript is in the desired form, the book will never be published. They also appreciate that the importance of each method varies with the conditions encountered and to some extent also with the idiosyncrasies of the user. It is hoped that the work will be of assistance to many and that it will inspire all who read it with the importance of careful and thoughtful observation.

THE AUTHORS.

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FIELD METHODS

IN

PETROLEUM GEOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

ORIGIN OF OIL AND GAS

Two explanations of the origin of oil and gas are to be considered; the inorganic, or volcanic theory, and the organic theory.

According to the inorganic theory oil and gas have been formed by chemical reactions such as the action of water on carbides, and their origin is deep seated within the earth.

The organic theory assumes that these substances have resulted from the partial decomposition, in sedimentary rocks, of organic matter, either animal, vegetable or both.

Most geologists believe that while the inorganic theory is plausible on the basis of laboratory experiments, it does not fit well with the observed facts of distribution. Consequently prospecting for oil and gas at the present time is largely, in fact almost wholly, carried on under the assumption that the organic theory is the correct one. It follows that extensive areas of igneous rocks, areas of sedimentary rocks which have been highly metamorphosed, and areas of those rocks, like the "Red Beds," which are believed to have been deposited on land and under arid conditions, are thought to be unfavorable to oil and gas accumulation because, in the igneous rocks, the conditions are not favorable either to origin or to accumulation; in the metamorphic rocks, any oil or gas that might have been present would probably have escaped; and in the terrestrial "Red Beds," the sediments would constitute a poor source as they are nearly destitute of organic matter. It does not follow that oil and gas cannot be found near igneous rocks nor that they cannot migrate into non-organic formations. Beyond this it is not pertinent to inquire into theories of origin in a treatise on field methods.

RESERVOIRS

The accumulation of oil and gas very rarely occurs in large open cavities, or underground channels. Commonly they simply saturate the rock, filling openings, such as joints, bedding planes, and pores. Consequently the most pervious or porous rocks would be expected to form the best reservoirs; and this, in general, is the case.

Usually the best "oil sands" are sandstones, but the reservoir formation is often spoken of as an "oil sand" even when it is a limestone. True sands vary in porosity from 1 per cent. or less in the most firmly cemented quartzites, to 40 per cent. or more in loose sands of nearly uniform grain, the figure being modified by cementation; by the ratio of coarse to fine material; by impurities; and by the degree of compacting. Conglomerates may also have much pore space. Limestones vary greatly, some being very dense, others very porous. The more porous varieties usually contain much magnesium carbonate and are then known as dolomites. Shales, though porous, are usually impermeable because the individual pores are very small and are not continuous, owing to the shape of grains. Igneous rocks are rarely sufficiently open, even where favorably situated, to afford suitable opportunity for accumulation; only tuffs, agglomerates, and partly weathered igneous rocks having appreciable pore space. Secondary openings, such as fractures, shrinkage vugs, and solution cavities, add to the porosity of rocks. A fair average for the effective porosity of the productive sands in the oil fields is probably about 10 per cent.

In general, sandstones are the best reservoirs, with dolomites second, while shales form the most impervious layers. Even in non-porous, or non-pervious rocks, small quantities of oil and gas may be secured in fractures but the supply is usually very limited and its discovery largely chance.

MIGRATION

To accumulate in reservoirs, the oil and gas must migrate through the rocks. The fact of migration is universally admitted. though there is dispute as to the relative importance of the causes of migration, as to the distances involved, and as to its effect on the oil. The causes of the migration may be several. Oil is lighter than water, and gas in turn is lighter than either, so that, where they are perfectly free to do so, the three, if present together, may be expected to arrange themselves in the order of their specific gravities, with water lowest and gas highest. Hydrostatic pressure (pressure exerted by still water) and hydrodynamic pressure (pressure exerted by the deflection of moving water and in this case due to the compacting of the rocks and the squeezing out of the contained water by the weight of the overlying rocks) also influence the migration of oil, as do gas pressure and capillary attraction. Apparently the most important factor in controlling the place of accumulation is gravity, for when the dip of the containing strata is such that the forward movement is no longer assisted by this force, migration stops.

STRUCTURAL CONDITIONS FAVORING ACCUMULATION

Because natural gas is lighter than air, it will rise through the pores of the rock and escape if free to do so. Similarly oil if unhindered, will rise to the surface of the water, and drain off as springs or seeps at the water outlets. For good accumulation, then, it is essential to have a pervious stratum with an impervious or non-permeable cover to limit the upward movement of the oil and gas. This is a fundamental conception in the theory of accumulation, which states that in an inclined, porous stratum saturated with oil, gas, and water, the oil and gas, will tend to move up the dip until stopped by some obstruction, and that at such a point a pool will be formed. Methods by which this migration is stopped and a pool formed are described in the following sections.

Anticlines.—Strata which have been folded so that the beds dip away from the summit in at least two directions constitute an anticline. If a porous layer saturated with oil, gas, and water, and overlain with an impervious layer, is warped into folds, the oil and gas will tend to rise to the highest points of the containing layer, *i.e.*, under the arch (anticline) (Fig. 1). Where

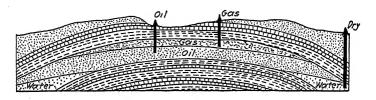
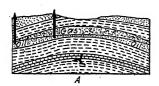


Fig. 1.—Anticline showing theoretical position of gas, oil, and water in sand of uniform character.

an accumulation takes place in an anticline the limbs or sides of which dip at low angles the oil and gas will tend to occupy a less thickness of the containing member and to spread out over a greater area than in a fold with more steeply dipping limbs. Conversely, steeply dipping limbs tend to cause a greater thickness



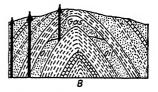


Fig. 2.—Anticlines showing (A) broad shallow accumulation, with gentle dips and (B) deeper narrow accumulation with steeper folds.

of the sand to be saturated, the production to extend to a less horizontal distance down the limbs, and the depth of the producing sand below the surface to increase rapidly with distance from the crest of the fold (Fig. 2). That portion of a thin sand which lies near the crest of the fold may be unable to contain all the oil and gas so that these substances may extend farther down the limb of the fold than would have been the case if the sand had been thicker.

Other things being equal, the more completely closed the anticline is by dips away from its crest in all directions, the greater are the chances of its trapping oil; and the larger the structure, the greater the amount of oil that will probably be trapped.

A discussion of the size of folds usually refers to their vertical rather than their horizontal dimensions, although the two are usually, but not always, closely related. The size may thus be spoken of as the amount of "closure," "reversal," or dip in the direction opposite to that of the regional. Thus in an area of west regional dip a fold which closed six ten-foot contours would

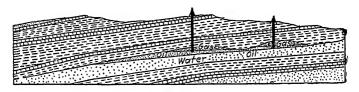


Fig. 3.—Accumulation caused by irregularities of upper surface of sand, in monoclinal dip.

have between 50 and 70 ft. of "closure," "reversal," or "east dip."

Domes.—Domes or quaquaversal folds are merely a special type of anticline more or less circular in plan.

Plunging Anticlines.—Plunging anticlines, often called "noses," are those which have no closure, whose axes pitch in one direction only. In such cases the oil and gas tend to migrate up to and then along the axis of the fold where, if further migration is stopped, a pool may be formed.

Monoclinal Dips.—Where the dip is all in one direction, as in the case of regional dip (see pp. 140-141), it is said to be monoclinal. Pools may occur in areas of monoclinal dips due to a thinning (Fig. 3), a tightening (decrease of porosity) (Fig. 4), or a break in the continuity of the containing sand (Fig. 5).

The line of obstruction must be nearly parallel to the strike of the beds, otherwise the oil and gas will move obliquely up the dip. There are absolutely no surface indications of such thinning or

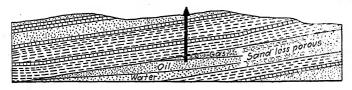


Fig. 4.—Accumulation of monoclinal dip, owing to tightening of sand.

tightening of the sand and no way of predicting, from surface conditions, the location of such a pool.

Terraces.—In a region of monoclinal dips, areas that are structurally flat, or notably less steep than the regional inclina-



Fig. 5.—Accumulation on monoclinal dips caused by lensing of sand.

tion, are known as terraces (Fig. 6), or "arrested anticlines." At the point where a steeper dip changes to one that is more nearly flat, the movement of oil and gas may be checked and an

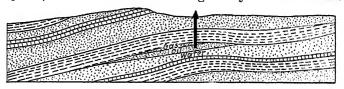


Fig. 6.—Accumulation on terrace or "arrested" anticline.

accumulation take place. Other things being equal, the more nearly flat the terrace and the wider it is, the greater the retarding effect.

Faults.—Where the oil and gas bearing beds are cut by faults, that is, by fractures along which movement has shifted the walls with respect to each other, a number of conditions are to be considered.

If the break is open (Fig. 7), the oil and gas, if present, will escape to the surface and be lost. If the break is tight, a condi-

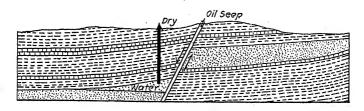


Fig. 7.—Loss of oil (seepage) along open fault.

tion which usually results where the impervious formation is shale and the stratigraphic throw does not exceed its thickness, the oil and gas will not escape, but one of a number of conditions may ensue: First, if the strata are dipping to the west, and the east side of the fault is the downthrow side (or *vice*

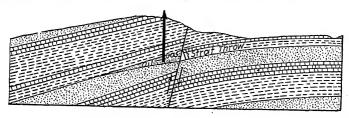


Fig. 8.—Partial obstruction of migration by fault, a case in which the stratigraphic throw is less than the thickness of the oil sand.

versa), the pervious formation will, with certain exceptions, be blocked at the top for a vertical thickness equal to the throw of the fault (Fig. 8). This will be true unless the stratigraphic throw exceeds the thickness of the formation, in which case further migration will be completely obstructed (Fig. 9); or unless a second pervious member is brought opposite the first

permitting the oil and gas to continue on their way (Fig. 10). Second, if the beds dip west, and the west side of the fault is the downthrow side, the migration will not be hindered (Fig. 11) unless the stratigraphic throw of the fault exceeds the thickness

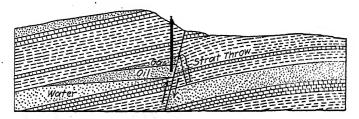


Fig. 9.—Total obstruction of migration by fault, a case in which the stratigraphic throw exceeds the thickness of the oil sand.

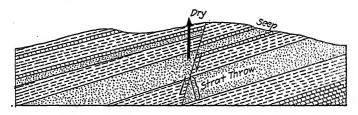


Fig. 10.—One pervious stratum faulted opposite another so that migration is not interrupted.

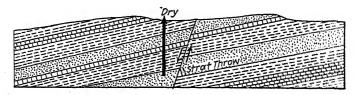


Fig. 11.—A case of faulting of oil sands in which migration is not obstructed.

of the pervious stratum (Fig. 12) or unless there has been a cementation of the sand along the fault plane.

It is also possible that the fault plane may be open part way but not entirely to the surface, in which case oil and gas may escape from a lower sand into an upper one (Fig. 13). Faults of a few feet displacement may die out with depth and not effect deep-seated oil sands at all. Likewise the lower formations may be broken by faults which do not reach the surface. It is probably not possible, with our present knowledge, to make safe predictions regarding the increase or decrease of throw in specific cases with depth.

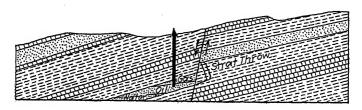


Fig. 12.—Migration entirely interrupted by faulting.

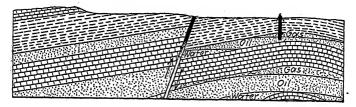


Fig. 13.—Oil escaping along an open fault from a lower to a higher sand.

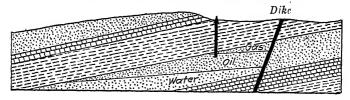


Fig. 14.—Accumulation caused by a dike.

Dikes.—Where the dipping oil sand is cut by a dike of impervious igneous rock, the oil may migrate up the dip to the barrier, and there be trapped (Fig. 14).

Beds Sealed Off by Asphalt.—Where an inclined oil sand outcrops at the surface, its oil content may slowly escape until

the accumulating asphaltic residue left during evaporation effectively seals off further loss. Other oil may then migrate up against the asphalt cap, or brea, and there be trapped (Fig. 15). Such oils are likely to be of low gravity.

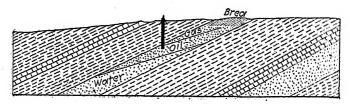


Fig. 15.—Oil accumulation caused by scaling off with asphaltic residue.

Angular Unconformity.—Where older inclined oil bearing beds have been truncated by erosion and then buried by later flat-lying strata, the oil, if not completely lost during the erosion



Fig. 16.—Oil trapped by angular unconformity.

interval, through seepage, might move up till it is trapped at the unconformity (Fig. 16). There would usually be no surface indication of such a condition, and the location of such a pool

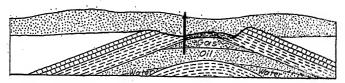


Fig. 17.—Anticline concealed beneath angular unconformity.

could seldom be foretold. In a similar manner anticlines may be buried beneath younger unfolded strata, and be absolutely inaccessible to surface study (Fig. 17). Synclines.—In all the above cases, it was assumed that the beds were completely saturated. Where there is little or no water in the rocks, and consequently no hydrostatic pressure, the oil may accumulate in the lowest part of the trough or syncline (Fig. 18). If the rocks are partly filled, the oil may lie on either flank of the structure, just above the water line (Fig.

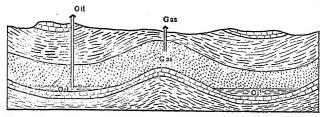


Fig. 18.—Oil accumulation in synclines, in rocks that are not saturated with water.

19). Gas, if present, will, if possible, move to the crest of the anticline in all cases.

Effect of Sand Irregularities.—If sands were perfectly uniform in thickness and porosity, prospecting for oil and gas would be much simplified. Shallow water formations, such as true

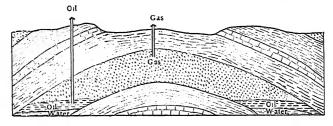


Fig. 19.—Oil accumulation on flanks of anticline, in beds that are only partially saturated with water.

sands, are typified by abrupt and marked changes in the thickness and in the lithologic and structural characters of the strata. The effects of irregularities in sands may be considered to be of three types; those in which the sand lenses out entirely, those in which it loses its porosity, and those in which the porous sand continues but is of changing thickness.

Where the porous stratum ceases to exist, oil migration must stop and a pool may be formed (Fig. 5). The same condition results where the voids of the sand are filled with some foreign matter such as clay, in which case the sand is said to be "tight" (Fig. 4). Irregularities in the top of the sand may cause oil and gas to be trapped, only when this variation is so marked as to cause a terracing or reversal in the dip of the overlying formation (Fig. 3).

There has been no careful study as to the relative amount of variations in the top and bottom of sands, but the field evidence at hand indicates that there is very little difference, so that a sudden variation in the thickness of a sand may be due to an irregularity in the top, in the bottom, or, more likely, in each.

In going into new regions it is essential that the geologist learn as much of the underground conditions as he can by studying the logs of deep water wells; also by examining the prospective oil horizons at the nearest point of outcrop, to determine their thickness, character, probable depth, and rate and direction of lateral variations. There is little assurance, however, that these conditions will persist for any considerable distances from the outcrop. Only the drill will reveal the sand conditions.

In an area that is partly drilled up, it may be possible to determine certain general conditions of sand change, but frequently it is quite impossible in strictly wildcat (unproved) territory.

The geologist, then, in the field, is engaged largely in trying to locate structural conditions, such as anticlines, terraces, etc., favorable to the accumulation of oil and gas. In the following chapters, the authors attempt to describe the instruments employed in mapping structures, their uses and limitations, the procedure in the field, and the making of the finished map. No effort is made to discuss subsurface conditions, or to outline the considerations involved in the location of holes, not because these features are unimportant, but because they have already received detailed consideration in other publications.

CHAPTER I

INSTRUMENTS

LEVEL VIALS

The level vial or bubble-tube is filled with some liquid of low viscosity and freezing point (usually ether, alcohol, or a mixture of the two) containing a bubble which commonly consists of the vapor of the substance with which the tube is filled. of these substances, but more especially the ether, expand on being heated and contract on cooling, the bubble is apt to be too small in summer and too large in winter. The disadvantages of this are, that in cases of extreme heat the bubble may disappear entirely and can be brought back only by the application of a wet cloth, and that a bubble's sensitiveness varies somewhat with its length, a long bubble settling more quickly and accurately than a short one. For this reason precision instruments are usually equipped with level tubes such that the amount of liquid can be regulated, but the ordinary small alidade does not have such an adjustment. Vials which are adjustable show by special markings the most desirable bubble length.

The bubble-tube is graduated into divisions of about two millimeters, and preferably upon the glass itself. The upper portion of the inner surface of the tube of a level vial or spirit level is ground longitudinally to a predetermined curvature, the radius of which determines the sensitiveness of the bubble. For a given change in the position of the tube, the bubble must move through a definite arc, the length of which, and hence the sensitiveness of the bubble, varies directly with the radius of curvature and indirectly with its curvature.

The sensitiveness of a bubble is usually expressed either by the length of the radius of curvature, or, what amounts to the same thing if the spacing of the divisions is known, by the number of seconds of arc that correspond to one bubble-tube division. The sensitiveness of the level vials furnished with the small alidades commonly used in oil geology varies from about 90" to 40".

If the striding level is in adjustment, an error of one vial division in leveling will, at a horizontal distance of 1000 ft., result in an error in the vertical distance of 0.436 ft. with a vial of 90" sensitiveness, 0.291 ft. with one of 60" sensitiveness, and 0.194 ft. with one of 40" sensitiveness. If the vial is one division out of adjustment, i.e., when it has been carefully leveled and then reversed a difference of one division is found in the readings, the resulting error in vertical distance will, however.

be the equivalent of only one-half of a bubble division.



Fig. 20.—The bull'seye level.

As a matter of accuracy and convenience the sensitiveness of a bubble should be adapted to the use to which it is to be put, *i.e.*, a telescope of high magnification should have a very sensitive bubble, one of long radius of curvature, while one of low power should have a

bubble that is much less sensitive, one of shorter radius.

The instrument makers complain that the public is inclined to demand a bubble that is more sensitive than is warranted by the character of the instrument upon which it is to be used. For rapidity of work it is best that the sensitiveness of a bubble be such as to just permit of the detection of the least unallowable error in the line of sight.

The bull's-eye level (Fig. 20 and Pl. IV) has now quite commonly superceded bubble-tubes as a means of leveling the base of the small alidade, or the plane table on which it rests. In this the inner surface of the glass is part of a sphere of long radius. By means of such a level the base can be more quickly leveled as the bubble shows directly the highest side. The radius of curvature is only moderately long since great accuracy in leveling the base is unnecessary. Time is often needlessly

wasted by the instrument man in trying, unknowingly, to obtain an unwarranted degree of accuracy in base leveling. If the table top has a slope of 2°, normal to the line of sight, the error in measuring vertical distance will be only 0.06 per cent. It requires a slope greater than 8° to give an error of 1 per cent. (See also pp. 63–64.)

THE COMPASS

History of the Compass.—It is not known where and when the principles of the compass were first discovered. The fact that the earth is surrounded by a magnetic field such that a magnetized needle tends to assume an approximately north and south direction was known to the Chinese about a thousand years before the beginning of the Christian Era. As early as the third and fourth centuries they used floating and mounted magnetized needles for navigation purposes.

The discovery of magnetic declination by Columbus in 1492 and of magnetic inclination by Hartmann in 1544 have added greatly to the usefulness of the compass needle. More recent developments have made possible such refinement in construction and in methods of use that the compass, with its clinometer attachment, is now indispensible in geologic field work.

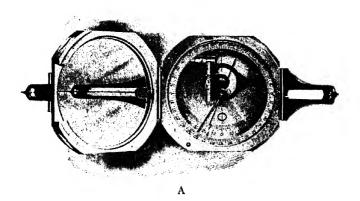
Description of the Compass.—The essential parts of a geologist's compass are a well mounted, balanced, and magnetized needle, preferably not less than 2 in. in length; an automatic stop to raise the needle from the pivot when not in use; a circular scale graduated to degrees and adjustable for declination; a clinometer attachment with suitable scale markings for reading the dip of rock strata and the slope of surfaces; and a straight edge, preferably two, one along the top and one along the bottom, which can be used in connection with the clinometer. Other attachments such as a mirror, a peepsight, etc., are often found to be convenient.

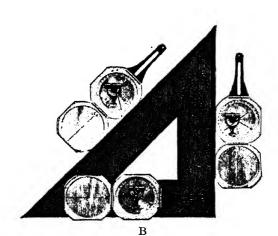
The needle must be sensitive and must constantly assume, when free to do so, the direction of the magnetic meridian. The first condition is brought about by attaching to the cen-

ter of the needle an inverted agate (jewel) cup such as will receive and turn freely upon a pivot made of the hardest steel and ground to a smooth, round sharp point. The second is satisfied by making the needle of sheer steel and strongly magnetizing it.

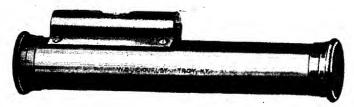
The north-seeking end of the needle is generally bright and may be marked with an arrow or the letter N, while the southseeking end is dull colored and, in the northern hemisphere, weighted with a wrapping of small wire which can be slipped along the needle to counteract its tendency to assume an inclined position, i.e., parallel to the magnetic lines of force. Most compasses are of the direct reading type, i.e., when the north end of the compass is pointed in the desired position and the direction of the north-seeking end of the needle read (and vice versa) the correct magnetic direction is obtained. This is brought about by interchanging the east and west markings (E. and W.) on the compass and is due to the fact that the compass box and not the needle is rotated and pointed. Thus if the north end of the compass is pointed in a northwest direction. the north-seeking end of the needle will lie on the east side of the north mark so that, unless the east and west marks have been interchanged, it will read northeast instead of northwest.

The compass best adapted to geologic work is known as the "Brunton pocket transit" (Pl. I) after its inventor, D. W. Brunton. Owing to patent rights (now expired) the cost of the Brunton compass has been somewhat excessive. Nevertheless it is probably used by more professional men than all other types of compasses together. It consists of a delicate needle about 2½ in. long with a jeweled socket at the center, and is provided with an automatic stop which lifts the needle from the pivot as the compass is closed. A clinometer with a sensitive spirit level is attached to the inside of the compass box and its position controlled by a small flat lever on the outside of the bottom. The clinometer arc is graduated to degrees but can be read by vernier to five minutes. The compass box carries a sighting point and a brass peepsight which can be very conveniently used

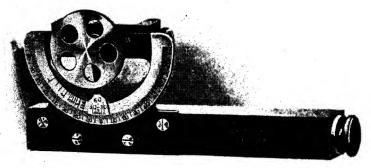




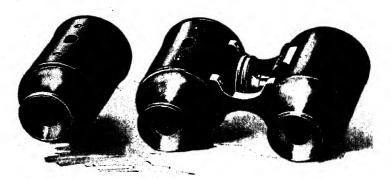
The Brunton Compass. (After Ainsworth.)



A .- Locke hand level. (After Gurley.)



B.—Abney hand level and clinometer. (After Gurley.)



C.—Monocular and binocular hand levels. (After Gurley.)

in connection with the mirror and center line on the inside of the cover for securing various kinds of sights. The compass ring and variation plate is graduated to degrees in quadrants and can be easily shifted by means of a pinion with a slotted head to correct for local declination. The case is a solid aluminum casting 234 by 234 by 114 in. in size and weighs 8 ounces.

Care of the Compass.—A compass should be given reasonable care in order that it may continue to give good service. The main thing to guard against is sudden shocks, for if the needle is on the pivot the latter may be broken or dulled or the agate bearing may be loosened. Besides this there is always the danger of changing the magnetic axis of the needle, especially of a needle which has been recently magnetized. Most instruments are provided with stops by means of which the jewel bearing can be lifted from the pivot when the needle is not in use. This should always be done.

It is sometimes desirable to remove the cover glass to make adjustments but this should not be done unless absolutely necessary as the manufacturer usually cements the cover glass in place to exclude moisture which might rust the pivot. Needles may be remagnetized and reweighted, jewels cleaned and pivots brightened and sharpened when necessary, but unless immediate attention is demanded by the exigency of the case, those conditions would best be corrected by the maker.

Use of the Compass.—The simple compass is used to determine direction where a high degree of accuracy is not required. This method may be advantageous over other methods in that the compass costs less than other instruments used for this purpose and is more simple and rapid of manipulation. The geologist uses it chiefly to determine the approximate direction of points on a traverse, and the directions of the dip and strike of beds, faults, etc. In mapping it is an essential part of the instrument equipment. By its use the plane table can be oriented without the use of backsights, part of the otherwise necessary instrument stations being eliminated, and the rapidity of the work increased. (See also pp. 76–77, and 84–85.)

The needle can be brought to rest by catching it with the stop at the middle point of its swing and releasing it quickly. It will then vibrate but little and will soon stop. Readings can also be taken by the average method, with the needle still swinging, as is done with a sensitive balance.

In oil geology field work the clinometer is an essential part of the hand compass. This attachment, which most compasses have, is used to determine the dip of planes, or the slope of surfaces, and is utilized nearly as often as is the needle. Ordinarily clinometers are graduated to read in degrees but may be graduated to read in percentage grade or in any other desired ratio. Usually the angle and direction of dip or slope is all that is desired, but when considered with the distance between given points, these values can be used to determine, by the vertical angle method, the relative elevation of the two stations, exactly as is done with the alidade or military sketching board.

With the clinometer set at zero, the compass may be used directly as a hand level.

HAND LEVELS

Under this heading are included all those instruments which are held by the hands alone during observations and by which the relative elevation of two points is determined. They consist essentially of a spirit level so arranged, usually by the aid of a prism or mirror, that the bubble and zero mark, or index, are in the field of view when the point under observation is being sighted upon. Mirrors are lighter, cheaper, and less easily broken than glass prisms and in many cases are quite satisfactory, but metallic surfaces are subject to tarnish and disintegration whereas prisms are sufficiently light and strong, and never lose their reflective power irrespective of climatic conditions. All metallic portions of the level are non-magnetic and do not influence the compass needle. The hand level is made in forms to be used with either one or both eyes, with or without magnification.

Locke Hand Level.—This popular type of hand level was invented by Prof. John Locke, M. D., an American scientist, in 1850. As now manufactured by different firms, some variations in construction are found. The most common type of this instrument consists of a short non-magnetic metallic tube or barrel about 5 in. long and ¾ in. in diameter, upon the top of which, in the position of maximum illumination, is mounted a small spirit level (Pl. II, A). A cross-wire is fastened in a horizontal position to a little movable frame under the level tube and is adjusted by changing the position of this frame by means of two small screws, one at each end of the level-case. Both ends of the barrel are closed by plain glass disks to exclude dust.

Under the bubble-tube and occupying one vertical half of the barrel is a prism, or mirror, so inclined that the image of the bubble is reflected to the small opening in the eyepiece. The prism, a triangular piece of glass about two-tenths of an inch in thickness, is so placed that the front or eyepiece edge is vertical, the top horizontal, and the back and lower edge inclined at 45° towards the eye end of the tube. Light from the bubble strikes the top of the prism with normal incidence, enters, strikes the inclined edge at an angle of 45°, and is totally reflected back through the prism and out towards the eyepiece because the angle of incidence on the inclined edge exceeds the critical angle of the glass. The result is that the bubble-tube appears to stand in a vertical position alongside the field of view which is seen through the other half of the barrel. When held in a horizontal position the bubble appears to be bisected by the horizontal wire, and the point in the field of view opposite this mark is on a level with the eve.

Some instruments have a draw-tube, ½ to 2 in. long, containing the segment of either a plano-convex or a biconvex lens which so changes the light from the level bubble and the crosswire that the eye can be conveniently focused upon them in one-half of the field of view and upon the landscape in the other at the same time.

Square Hand Level.—A square hand level has become quite popular among geologists (Fig. 21). In this the bubble-tube and the eveniece are similar to those in the Locke level, but the horizontal wire and the reflector are part of a slide which slips into the open end of a square barrel to the position of adjustment under the bubble-tube. The horizontal wire is strengthened by being constructed of a metal sheet, the cross-section of which appears as a wire. The reflector, a narrow prismoid of polished metal, appears in a vertical position across the center of the field so that the intersection of the horizontal wire with the view can be seen on both sides of the bubble. The mirror is narrowed at each end so as to obstruct less of the view. This instrument is square in cross-section and so can be used as a contact level. but it owes its popularity in the main to the fact that it is smaller and more easily carried than the round models. It is objection-





Fig. 21.—Square hand level.

able in that, as usually constructed, it cannot be focused or readily adjusted. The absence of an adjustable lens causes the horizontal wire to appear large and to blurr when a distant point is viewed. The level is adjusted by wedging up one end of the bubble-case or by moving the mirror carriage in or out as required. The slots which carry the supports of this slide may be filed deeper and the carriage pushed farther in, but it is unsafe to use the level with the carriage in any position other than inserted as far as it will go.

Abney Hand Level and Clinometer.—This instrument was designed by Capt. Abney of the British Army. It is an adaptation of the Locke level to the reading of angles and differs from it in that the bubble-tube and a vernier are attached to a movable arm in such a manner that the bubble is always visible (Pl. II, B).

To determine the vertical angle or slope, bring the line of

sight to bear upon the station, the relative elevation of which is wanted, or parallel to the slope to be measured, and turn the arm with the bubble and vernier until the bubble is bisected by the index, in which position the scale will show the angle. Angles up to 60° or 90° may be read in degrees and minutes to the nearest 5 or 10 minutes or in percentage for slopes between 1 in 1 and 1 in 10.

Gurley Monocular and Binocular Hand Levels.—These instruments combine the properties of the telescope and the hand level. The following description is copied from the Gurley catalog.

"The monocular hand level (Pl. II, C) consists of a tube to which are fitted the lenses of a single opera-glass, containing in addition a reflecting prism, a cross-wire, and a small spirit level, the last being shown in the open part of the tube.

"The eye-lens, as indicated in the cut, is made of two separate pieces, the larger one being the usual concave eye-lens of the opera-glass and the smaller one a segment of a plano-convex lens, having its focus in a cross-wire under the level vial and above the reflecting prism.

"The observer holds the tube horizontal with the level opening uppermost, and observes the object to which the instrument is directed and the position of the level bubble with reference to the cross-wire on the under side of the level vial.

"When the hand level is held truly horizontal the cross-wire will bisect the bubble, and will also determine the level of any object seen through the telescope; thus securing to the observer a clear view of the object, magnified also by the telescope.

"The binocular hand level (Pl. II, C) consists of two tubes, that on the right enclosing the usual lenses of the opera-glass, while the tube on the left contains only the prism, level vial, and cross-wire of the instrument just described.

"This instrument is used like the ordinary opera-glass, the level being above, as shown in the cut.

"The hand level is adjusted by sliding the prism tube back and forth until the line given is the same as that given by a Y-level.

"The prism in the tube can be reached by removing the cap from the

closed end of the tube, and it is clamped by a small screw on the lower side."

Bausch & Lomb Prismatic Binocular Hand Level.—Most instrument makers are offering very good prismatic binoculars but Bausch & Lomb have so added to the general design that the instrument can be used for leveling and stadia work.

The prismatic binoculars embrace the stereoscopic principle



Fig. 22.—Bausch & Lomb prismatic binocular hand level.

and were introduced by Dr. Ernest Abbe of the Zeiss works in 1893. By means of a prism (Fig. 22) the natural interocular distance and the consequent stereoscopic effect are nearly doubled. They likewise permit of a large field of view, a high telescopic power, and at the same time a compactness which is not found in instruments of other types. The following description is quoted from the catalog of the makers.

"In one monocular is placed a glass diaphragm with a Maltese cross, marking the usual stadia interval of 1:100 in both the vertical and the horizontal planes.

"The bubble-tube is mounted on the underside of the hinge-bar in a position where it may be conveniently viewed through the small lens that is set in the eye-cup, as shown in the illustration. The small lens may be adjusted to position by revolving the eye-cup. Each eye-piece is provided with a diotropic scale so that the inequalities of vision can be rectified and the interpupilary distances can be quickly set to suit any observer.

"The bubble and the field of view do not appear simultaneously as in the Locke hand level but much as in the Wagner-Tesdorpf model

and in a manner quite as effective, permitting an unobstructed and undivided field of the very highest optical qualifications.

"This binocular is usually supplied with 8-power optics, which is about as high a magnification as can be held steadily in the hand."

Care, Testing, and Use of Hand Levels.—Hand levels are strongly made but should be given reasonable care as they contain glass parts and are subject to adjustment. They should be frequently tested and adjusted to the accuracy of their legibility. In all cases the bubble-tube is cemented in position and the adjustment made by moving the cross-wire, the mirror, or the bubble-tube case. The position of the cross-wire in the ordinary Locke level is changed by means of the screws at the end of the level case, one being screwed in and the other out so that the slide upon which the cross-wire is mounted is held firmly between them. In the case of the square level, one end of the bubble-tube case is shimmed up or the slide which carries the mirror and cross-wire in the end of the tube is moved in or out as may be required. To adjust the Abney level and the clinometer of the Brunton compass, loosen the screw which holds the level case and the vernier arm together and correct the relative positions of the two. This is somewhat difficult as the tightening of the screw may change the relative positions.

There are many methods by which the accuracy can be tested; some of the more convenient ones are described in the following paragraphs.

- (a) If the alidade is at hand it will be found convenient to level it carefully and to note the points at which the middle horizontal wire cuts some distant object and one near by. The hand level can then be held firmly against the nearer object at the point noted, sighted upon the farther point, and adjusted until the horizontal wire appears to bisect the bubble.
- (b) One may choose two trees which are on about the same level and about 100 yds. apart. The level is rested against one of the trees at a point easily recognized from the other one, sighted upon the latter, and the point of intersection of the cross-wire on the tree when bisecting the bubble noted. The

observer then goes to the second tree, places the level at the point of intersection and sights upon the first point. The bubble is adjusted to one-half the apparent error and the operation repeated until the adjustment is satisfactory.

(c) Contact instruments, such as the Brunton compass, are more easily corrected while being held in contact with a horizontal surface. This may not be safely done with levels of the Locke type because their horizontal line of sight is not necessarily parallel to the axis of the barrel.

In oil work the hand level is used for much longer observations than in other branches of engineering. Observations of a half mile or a mile in length are common, the greater the distance at which it can be used the better. The best simple hand level for general use is one which has a draw-tube with lens segment, a reflecting prism, a small but distinct cross-wire easily adjusted, a small hole (about one millimeter in diameter) in the eye end to decrease the parallax, and a fairly sensitive bubble, the whole so constructed as to hold its adjustment.

Hand levels are small but valuable instruments for quick approximations in both reconnaissance and detailed work; also for more accurate work such as determining the interval between two outcrops, for carrying an elevation up a hill or through the trees to a point where the rod can be read from the instrument, for carrying the position of a bed across an area of no outcrops, etc.

It is sometimes convenient to use the hand level as a clinometer to the extent of determining in which of two directions a given bed or stratum is dipping. By holding the level a short arm's length from the eye, its axis normal to the line of sight, it may be held with its top parallel to the dipping bed the direction of dip of which is shown by the position of the bubble. This method assumes that the line of sight of the level (as defined by the image of the cross-wire and the center of the eyepiece opening), is parallel to the top, which may not be true. The Brunton compass is commonly and correctly used in this way.

A serious objection to the use of the non-telescopic hand level

is that since it has no telescopic line of sight, a slight movement of the eye of the observer will cause a considerable change in the position of the intersection of the cross-wire with the field of

view (parallax). The telescopic varieties have such a line of sight and this apparent movement of the crosswire is avoided when the instrument is correctly focused. (See also pp. 111-113.)

BAROMETERS

History.—The invention of the mercurial barometer. usually attributed to Torricelli in 1643, was a result of the study of the supporting power of a vacuum. investigation by Galileo led his pupil, Torricelli, to discover that if a glass tube is closed at the lower end, filled with mercury, and then quickly inverted in a dish of mercury so that no air is permitted to enter the tube, the height of the mercury column in the tube varies with the atmospheric condition or pressure. This is the fundamental principle of all mercurial barometers. The fact that the atmospheric pressure varies with the elevation above sea level was first conceived by Blaise Pascal and demonstrated, at his request, by Périer in 1648.

MERCURIAL BAROMETER

The mercurial barometer (Fig. 23) consists essen tially of a glass tube which has been sealed at one end filled with pure mercury, and inverted into a dish of mercury; together with a scale graduated into inches to measure the height of the mercury column in the tube above that in the dish or cistern. Gravity tends to draw the mercury from the tube while the pressure (After Jameof the atmosphere upon the surface of the mercury in son.)

the dish or cistern tends to counteract the force of gravity, the mercury column rising to a height such that its weight is equal to the atmospheric pressure on an equivalent area in the cistern. Thus a balance is established and the height of the mercury column varies with the air pressure.

The transportation of a mercurial barometer, approximately 34 in. in length, from place to place as might be required by geologic work is neither practicable nor necessary, the aneroid barometer being used instead. Further description of the mercurial barometer is therefore omitted.

ANEROID BAROMETER

HISTORY AND CONSTRUCTION

"In 1798 M. Comté, Professor of Aërostatics in a school at Meudon near Paris invented a 'watch-like, metallic airtight vacuum case, the lid of which sustained by internal springs, rises and falls under variable pressures.' This undoubtedly was the first 'ancroid' (Greek compound 'without fluid') barometer, and was made for the reason that in his balloon ascents he found the mercury barometer suffered greatly from violent oscillations."

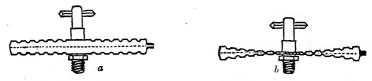
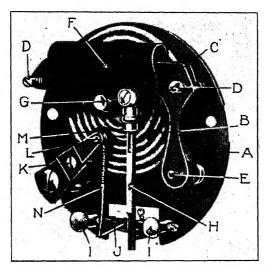


Fig. 24.—Barometer chamber (a) before exhaustion; (b) after exhaustion.

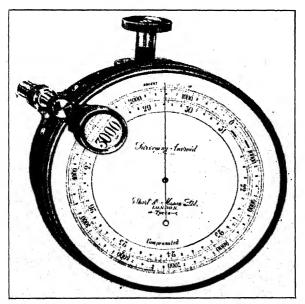
(After Jameson.)

The first serviceable form of the aneroid was made by Vidi in 1848 and consisted of a low cylindrical metal box hermetically sealed after the exhaustion of the air (Fig. 24). The top and bottom were corrugated to increase their flexibility and held apart by an external spring. The point of equilibrium between the vacuum box and the spring was very readily effected by even slight changes in the atmospheric pressure upon the ends of the vacuum chamber. By a series of mechanisms, the motion was

¹ Jameson, P. R., The barometer as the foot rule of the air, p. 6, 1915, published by the Taylor Instrument Co.



A.-Internal mechanism of modern altitude barometer.



B.—Altitude barometer as used by surveyors. (Af'er Jameson.)

conveyed in a highly magnified form to a dial where it could be read.

The general principle of all aneroids is the same. The one most commonly used today differs from the Vidi in that a laminated spring has been substituted for a spiral one.

A (Pl. III, A) is the base plate upon which the parts are mounted.

B is the vacuum box of german silver, the corrugated ends of which have a thickness of about 0.004 of an inch. The center of the lower end is fastened to the base plate by means of a screw and nut, and the top to the pillar through which the bar G passes. The ends are held apart by means of the spring F.

C is the bridge which spans the vacuum chamber B and holds the spring F.

D indicates the positions of two adjustment screws by means of which the bridge C is either raised or lowered, regulating the tension on the chamber B.

E is another adjustment screw by means of which the bridge C can be raised or lowered. The other end of this screw is to be seen in the back of all aneroids. This is the screw that is used in making most adjustments.

F is a steel spring one edge of which is held firmly in a slot in the bridge while the other presses firmly against the knife-edge of an angular steel rod G which passes through a pillar attached to the top of the vacuum chamber.

The bar H, compensated for temperature, is attached to the spring F, and at the outer end greatly magnifies the movement.

I marks the position of two supports or pillars fitted to plate A.

J is a bar or regulator, set between, and working on, steel points or pivots passing through the supports I and I.

At the outer end of the bar H is attached a small bar which extends down and is attached to the regulator J by means of a short arm parallel to H. A vertical arm longer than the last, is also attached to the regulator J and to the end of the chain N, thus magnifying the motion of the outer end of the bar H.

K is an arm or cock to hold L and M.

L is the pin or arbor passing through the end of cock K.

M is a hairspring fitted to the pin L. Its duty is to move the index in a direction opposite to that caused by pulling the chain N, thus keeping the system taut and preventing any lost motion.

N is a steel chain, one end of which is fastened to the upper end of the vertical arm attached to the regulator J, the other passes around, and is fastened to a small wheel on the pin L, to which the indicator hand is fitted.

Thus an increase in the atmospheric pressure presses inward the ends of the vacuum chamber B. Because the lower end is attached to the base plate A, the motion is all taken up by the top which depresses the spring F and the bar H, rotating the bar J, and increasing the tension on the chain N, which in turn causes the index hand to move around the dial to the right indicating the new pressure. If the air pressure decreases, the spring and bars move in the opposite direction lessening the tension on the chain and permitting the hair spring M to move the index in the reverse direction.

Other types of aneroids are made, such as the Bourdon and the Goldsmith, but these are not adapted to the purposes of the geologist, and it is believed are not used in geologic work in the oil fields. They differ mainly in the number of vacuum boxes and in the transmission of the motion to the indicator.

Because of slight variations in the composition, construction, and tempering, the elasticities of the top of the vacuum box and of the springs are slightly different in each instrument. It has been generally considered essential that the graduations of the dial of each instrument be located by actual trial. This was done by placing each barometer in an air tight chamber and subjecting it to various air pressures, the values of which were determined by the use of a standard barometer. A number of positions of the pointer at known pressures having been determined the remaining divisions were laid off by interpolation. The ordinary aneroid is not so constructed, the dial being a standard printed pattern to which the mechanism of the barometer is adjusted as a

watch is adjusted to keep correct time. This method has been found to be accurate, practical, and much cheaper than the calibration and marking of the dial of each instrument separately. It is assumed that the elasticities of the springs are constant in the positions through which they move so that the amount of movement of the springs and the corresponding are passed over by the indicator are in all positions the same for a given change in pressure. Thus the pressure scale marked in inches is equally spaced while the scale of feet is unevenly divided since the pressure change is not constant for each unit change of elevation, but is uniformly progressive (Pl. III, B).

The so-called surveying aneroids, such as are used in geologic field work, are graduated to show both inches of mercury and the equivalent pressure changes in feet, the positions of the latter markings being computed from the former by Airey's formula (see table VII, Appendix).

Under proper conditions the reading of pressure in feet of elevation is as accurate as the reading in inches of mercury, numerous text books to the contrary notwithstanding, and is very much more convenient as it saves many computations.

In order that a standard relation between height in feet and barometric inches might be obtained, Sir George Biddell Airey found it essential to assume a point at which the two scales coincide, and desirable that the zero point of the altitude scale should correspond to such a pressure as would seldom, if ever, be exceeded, so that the pointer would always be on the scale and negative readings avoided. For this he chose the 31-in. point, which is still generally accepted for this purpose and so indicated by the scales on the dials.

Inasmuch as the zero-foot point of the altitude scale is not at sea level, about 30 in., but at 31 in. (890 ft. below sea level), and as the atmospheric pressure is dependent in part upon conditions other than elevation, the aneroid is not to be regarded as an instrument for determining the elevation of a point as referred to sea level, but only for the determination of the relative elevation of two points, an observation on each of which must be

taken. The actual elevation of a point is obtained by comparing it with a point of known elevation.

It would be convenient if the scale could be movable so that in starting it could be set at zero or at the correct elevation; direct readings of differences of elevation as referred to sea level might then be taken. The public has requested such an instrument and the manufacturers have responded. Obviously such readings are inaccurate, for the change in atmospheric pressure is not constant for each unit change of elevation, but is uniformly progressive. A movement of the pointer over the space on the dial between 30 and 31 in. is equivalent to an altitude change of 890 ft., while a movement between 17 and 18 in. is equivalent to an altitude change of 1,580 ft. All of the more accurate types of the aneroid have fixed scales.

Aneroid barometers are made in various sizes, their diameters ranging from about 2 to 5 in. The spacing of the divisions on the dial and the consequent legibility increases with the diameter and decreases with the scale range. The aneroid most commonly used in mapping the low folds of the Mid-Continent Field is the 3-in. size. The outer limit of the scale circle has a diameter of approximately 25% in., and reads up to 6,000 ft., 31 to 24.87 in. of mercury. The smallest division on the main scale is either 10 or 20 ft., but may be read by means of a vernier to either 1 or 2 ft. These, when in adjustment, record the air pressure with sufficient accuracy and are more convenient to carry than the 5-in. size.

An aneroid made to read intervals of less than 10 ft. is usually supplied with a magnifying glass so attached that its relation to the scale will be constant and a possible chance for error avoided. After one has become fully accustomed to the instrument, he usually finds that the unaided eye is sufficient and the glass is removed, because it is rather bothersome in replacing the instrument in its case.

All aneroids of this type show through a small hole in the back

¹Jameson, P. R., The barometer as the foot rule of the air, p. 13, 1915, published by the Taylor Instrument Co.

an adjustment screw which bears upon one end of the vacuum box. By turning this screw the pointer can be made to move over the scale until it indicates the proper elevation or agrees with a standard barometer at that point, but it does not follow that this should be done even though the discrepancy be large. The spacing of the graduations cannot be changed.

VARIATIONS IN THE INSTRUMENTS

- (a) The movable parts of an aneroid are more or less in constant motion due to the jars of transportation and the changes in the atmospheric pressure. A wearing away of the points in contact results in a slight relaxation of the springs by which such points are kept in contact, and hence in a gradual decrease in the pressure which they exert.
- (b) The elasticity of the springs decreases with use and with time.
 - (c) The friction of the parts varies with their cleanness.
 - (d) Rust increases friction and irregularities.
- (e) Because of the weight of the parts, the reading of an aneroid varies with the position in which it is held. Three 3-in. instruments, reading by vernier to 2 ft., showed average variations of 12, 25, and 35, ft. respectively when read in a horizontal position, face upward, and when read in a vertical position, stem upward. A 2½-in. aneroid reading to 10 ft., showed a change of 40 ft. under similar conditions.
- (f) The scale may be correct only for certain pressures. Not uncommonly a barometer will read correctly only for points between certain limits.
- (g) The reading of an aneroid is somewhat dependent upon the temperature because of the expansion or contraction of its metal parts, and of the air. Some claim that because of the incomplete exhaustion of the vacuum box, no temperature correction is necessary. Many barometers are marked "compensated," but the value of this correction is questionable. Perhaps one would be nearer the truth if he assumed that the

error of an aneroid due to temperature changes of its parts is a small one and may be safely neglected in ordinary field work.

All of these factors tend to change the reading of the index. They are compensated for in part in the construction, eliminated in part by proper use, and corrected in part by the adjustments provided. When one considers the great magnification of the movement of the top of the vacuum box as shown by the pointer, he can appreciate the delicacy of the aneroid barometer and understand how even slight variations may affect the reading materially.

VARIATIONS IN THE ATMOSPHERE

The great difficulty experienced in the use of the aneroid barometer is due to atmospheric changes other than those which are the direct result of changes of elevation. They are the result of changes in temperature and humidity and of the action of the wind and the influence of topography.

Causes of Change in Atmospheric Pressure.—Temperature. As shown by the laws of Charles and Gay-Lussac, the volume of the air increases with its temperature, the pressure being constant.

```
Where, t = \text{centigrade temperature},

T = \text{absolute temperature} = t + 273,

a = \text{a constant}, which for air is \frac{1}{273},

P = \text{pressure to be determined},

P_0 = \text{pressure at 0°C.},

V = \text{volume to be found},

V_0 = \text{volume at 0°C.},

then, P = P_0 + atP_0 = \text{volume constant},

= P_0 (1 + at) = P_0 T / 273.
```

In an open system, such as the atmosphere, where the temperature, volume, and pressure are all variables, an increase in temperature causes the air to expand, to increase in volume, to flow upward and outward, thus decreasing the weight and the consequent pressure of the vertical column affected.

or, $V = V_0 (1 + at) = V_0 T/273 = \text{pressure constant.}$

Because of differences in the color of the soil, in vegetation, in shade, and in topographic relations, neighboring points are usually of different temperatures.

Pure air absorbs heat from the sun's rays but slowly. Its radiation is likewise poor. The earth's surface is heated and cooled comparatively rapidly. The lower stratum of the atmosphere is largely heated and cooled by radiation from and to the earth. Generally speaking, this stratum is cooler than the earth during the day and warmer during the night. The amount and rate of change in temperature of the lower and upper air strata are markedly different, the lower showing wide variations, while the upper and by far the greater portion of the air column is almost constant in temperature.

Computations by Gilbert¹ indicate that in the middle latitudes the average daily range of the temperature of the lower layer of the atmosphere is from 10° to 20° near the sea shore and from 20° to 35° in the interior of the continents, while that of the main body of the air is only about 4°.

A stratum of air, having become sufficiently heated at the earth's surface, streams upward in an irregular manner until the point of equilibrium is reached when it spreads out forming a layer which is warmer than the stratum either immediately above or below. Likewise in the evening when the earth's surface becomes cooler than the air, cold air flows down the hill sides and accumulates in the valleys after the manner of water in streams and lakes. So marked is this at certain seasons of the year that the difference in temperature can be quickly noticed as towards evening one descends into such an air lake.

Water Vapor.—The average amount of water vapor present at the surface of the earth is about 1.2 per cent. by volume of the total quantity of the gas, but rapidly decreases in amount with a lowering of the temperature and with increasing elevation so that it is practically absent above an altitude of 10 kilometers (32,808 feet). The pressure exerted by water vapor in the atmos-

¹ GILBERT, G. K., in the report of the U. S. Geol. Survey for 1880-1881, p. 421.

phere varies from almost nothing to more than 0.4 of an inch of mercury.

The weight of a column of air is increased by that of its contained water vapor, but it is the irregular distribution and varying amounts of the vapor which are troublesome in barometric work. These conditions may be due to inequalities in temperature, irregular distribution of bodies of water, the direction of the wind, and to other factors. However, vapor constitutes such a small percentage of the atmosphere that it usually modifies the total pressure irregularities but slightly.

Wind.—The wind tends in part to destroy but in the main to complicate pressure irregularities due to temperature moisture, and to create others which are less subject to correction. As the strength of the wind increases, the irregularities on the earth's surface which it encounters cause greater and more complex contortions in the air, and the greater are the condensations and rarefactions of the air caused by it before and behind obstructions respectively. Similar irregularities, affecting the reading of the aneroid, exist on the windward and leeward side of the body of the observer. Gilbert states that on Mount Washington, a wind of 50 miles per hour caused the barometer to read 0.13 of an inch (equivalent to about 104 ft. in elevation) too low. Of all changes those due to the wind are the most troublesome and the most difficult to correct. They can be reduced in part by confining the work to the more favorable (less windy) times and by proper methods of observation.

Topography.—Topographic irregularities are the direct cause of many of the local variations in pressure brought about through the aid of the wind. As the lower strata of air move over the earth's surface and encounter prominences, they are retarded, diverted, and divided. These conditions result in a compression of the atmosphere before and a rarefaction behind prominences, in both compression and rarefaction through the interaction of the currents so created, and in a general complication of the existing irregularities.

Cold air descending to the earth's surface settles in topographic

depressions, causing an undue pressure at such points. Air being heated by the earth tends to form a blanket shaped by the topography, a blanket in which all barometric observations in geologic field work are taken.

Other things being equal, the error of observations tends to increase with the topographic relief and with the difference in altitude between two stations under comparison.

Recurrence of Changes in Atmospheric Pressure.—Diurnal Changes.—As the earth rotates upon its axis the hemispheres of day and night follow each other westward, each returning to a given point every twenty-four hours. As an area passes into night and loses the heating effect of the sun's rays, the temperature falls and the area becomes relatively cold. With the advent of morning with its sunlight the temperature rises and the area becomes relatively warm. There thus result two hemispheres which differ from each other in temperature and in the amount of the resulting evaporation. As the air is heated by the sun's rays it expands, moving upward and outward towards that hemisphere where a falling temperature is resulting in a shrinking of the air with a downward and inward flow. Owing to the rapidity of the earth's rotation as compared with its absorption of heat from the sun, the times of greatest and least temperatures of the air (least and greatest pressure respectively) are not when the sun stands in the meridian (the solar noon and midnight) and its ravs are respectively the most and least intense, but a number of hours afterwards, 2 to 3 P.M. and about 4 A.M.1

The temperature indirectly affects the pressure by its influence over the amount and the density of the water vapor in the atmosphere. Water vapor is a true gas and is subject to the conditions described above for air, but under conditions of rapid evaporation or condensation it exerts an additional influence. As it diffuses through the air, the resistance offered by the latter may be sufficient, where the evaporation is rapid,

¹ PLYMPTON, G. W., The aneroid barometer: its construction and use, p. 11, 1917.

to cause an accumulation of vapor in the lower stratum. The reaction due to its impeded ascent increases its elastic force and the barometer rises (pressure increases), reaching a maximum about 9 to 10 A.M.

When the temperature of the air is depressed to the dew point, moisture is deposited at such a rate that its loss cannot be at once compensated for by diffusion from the strata above and the barometer falls, reaching a minimum at about 10 P.M.

"Hence, as regards temperature, the barometer is subject to a maximum and minimum pressure each day—the maximum occurring at the period of greatest cold, and the minimum at the period of greatest heat. And as regards vapor in the atmosphere, the barometer is subject to two maxima and minima of pressure—the maxima occurring at 10 A.M., when, owing to the rapid evaporation, the accumulation of vapor near the surface is greatest, and about sunset, or just before dew begins to be deposited, when the relative amount of vapor is great; and the minima in the evening, when the deposition of dew is greatest, and before sunrise, when evaporation and the quantity of vapor in the air is least.

"Thus the maximum in the forenoon is brought about by the rapid evaporation arising from the dryness of the air and the increasing temperature. But as the vapor becomes more equally diffused, and the air more saturated, evaporation proceeds more languidly; the air becomes also more expanded by the heat, and flows away to meet the diurnal wave of cold advancing from the eastwards. Thus the pressure falls to the afternoon minimum about 4 P.M. From this time the temperature declines, the air approaches more nearly the point of saturation, and the pressure being further increased by accessions of air from the warm wave, now considerably to the westward, the evening maximum is attained. As the deposition of dew proceeds, the air becomes drier, the elastic pressure of the vapor is greatly diminished, and the pressure falls to a second minimum about 4 A. M."

The amount of these variations decreases from the equator towards the poles, with the decrease in the heating power of the sun's rays. Dry climates may have no evening maximum. In

¹ PLYMPTON, G. W., The aneroid barometer: its construction and use, pp. 12-14.

such cases the minimum occurs about midnight and the only maximum about 9 A.M.

The following average daily range of pressure has been furnished by the Climatological Division of the U.S. Weather Bureau Station.

AVERAGE DAILY RANGE OF PRE	SSURE	
Station .	January	July
Galveston, Tex	0.084 in.	0.061 in.
Dodge City, Kan	0.068 in.	0.079 in.
San Francisco, Cal	0.064 in.	0.055 in.
Bismark, N. Dak	0.039 in.	0.056 in.

Annual Changes.—As winter in one hemisphere is coincident with summer in the other, the condition is analogous to the change from night to day, and the air of the warmer hemisphere expands and flows towards the colder. This tends to lessen the pressure of the former and increase that of the latter.

The evaporation of water and the formation of water vapor is the greater in the warmer hemisphere, a condition which tends to depress the temperature, while on being carried into the colder hemisphere the moisture is condensed and falls as rain or snow, a condition which tends to lessen the pressure.

Thus the effects of expansion and evaporation in the warmer hemisphere are opposed to each other as are those of contraction and condensation in the colder. The result is therefore the algebraic sum of each of these two pairs of factors, and depends in the first case upon the relative changes in evaporation and temperature and in the second case upon the amount and relative changes in temperature and precipitation. The annual variation is the maximum difference between the two results. In some cases the pressure is the greater in summer and in others in winter. Annual changes are very small near the equator, 0.054 in. at Cayenne, and very large under conditions of small vapor and large temperature changes, as illustrated by a change of 0.592 in. at Irkutsk, Siberia:1

Irregular Changes.—Of all the changes which are detrimental to barometric work, these are the worst. They are usually

¹ PLYMPTON, G. W.: The aneroid barometer: its construction and use.

more limited in areal extent, more varied in their nature, cause more rapid and greater changes, and are so modified by stormy and windy conditions which may have originated elsewhere, and by local conditions such as topography and humidity, that but few laws concerning them have been discovered. Even these are generalities and are of no practical value in correcting irregularities.

The temperature of an area which has been subjected to intense sunshine for a number of days may become sufficiently higher than that of the surrounding region to produce a storm center. Here the heated air expands, rises, and moves outward. Cold air rushes in along the earth's surface to take its place. In this manner winds may be generated which will be felt at a distance of hundreds of miles. The wind is the great enemy of the barometer, for it so mixes and distorts existing variations as to make them no longer subject to rule.

As clouds appear to lie in a certain stratum, so is it certain that the air is stratified, composed of layers of different densities. Air which has become heated by contact with the earth does not rise by diffusing through the air above it, but breaks through at one or more points and streams upward to a point determined by its density where it again spreads out as a layer. Cold air descends in a like manner.

As the water in a stream in passing down a cataract is divided, changed in direction and speed, and here and there set into whirling motions which are carried on down the stream, so is the air affected in passing over the irregular surface of the earth. Small areas of high and low pressure are created before and behind prominences, and the existing irregularities due to stratification, moisture content, and other causes are much distorted both horizontally and vertically.

Irregularities due to stratification, moisture content, and the wind, as well as those due to diurnal changes, die out rapidly upward. Thus barometric readings in field work are taken under the worst possible conditions.

Errors due to atmospheric variations tend to increase with the

force of the wind, with the horizontal and vertical distance between two points, and with the length of time that elapses between the two readings.

Barometric Gradient.—By barometric gradient is meant the slope of the surface which unites, or is defined by, points of equal pressure. If the air was in a state of equilibrium or if the pressure varied only with elevation, such a surface would be a horizontal plane. If the changes were only periodic, such as might be due to the change from summer to winter or from day to night, such a surface would be marked by low, broad wave-like surfaces moving ever westward. But under the varying conditions described above such waves are greatly modified and their surfaces contorted. Surfaces of equal pressure as they occur one above another are no longer parallel but may have any angular relation, especially those near the earth's surface which are the more contorted.

Care and Reading of the Aneroid.—In using the aneroid, the following points should be observed.

- (1) The instrument should always be carried in a case, preferably hung over the shoulder by means of a strap, and subjected to as few jars as possible. Accidents have been prevented by tying it to the case by means of a cord about a foot long which prevents it from falling to the ground should it slip from the case or from the observer's hands.
- (2) It should be held in the same position for all observations, preferably with the dial horizontal.
- (3) It should be gently tapped before a reading is taken. This it to make sure that the pointer has settled to the proper position but also affords an indication of the adjustment of the instrument.
- (4) Some aneroids are quite sluggish in their actions. Sufficient time must be allowed for the adjustment to the change in pressure. Most aneroids adjust themselves so quickly that this precaution is needless.
- (5) The pointer is commonly such a distance from the dial that parallax or a slight difference in the angle of observation

may effect the reading materially. The reading is best taken by sighting along the pointer with one eye from a point in its vertical plane or with both eyes when the precaution has been taken to eliminate parallax by turning the aneriod about its vertical axis until the line of sight is parallel to the index. If a magnifying glass is used, it must be held parallel to the dial.

- (6) The distance from the aneroid in the hands of the observer to the ground is constant and need not be considered except when taking a reading on a point, the elevation of which is different from that of the point on which the observer stands.
- (7) Care should be used to prevent the instrument from being unduly heated by the observer's person or the direct sun's rays. The instrument may be "compensated" for temperature but that is no reason for exposing it unnecessarily.
- (8) If a temperature correction of the instrument (not necessary in this work) is to be made, the thermometer should be read first.

Tests of the Aneroid.—The method of testing and the general mechanical accuracy of the aneroid are shown by the following specifications copied from printed sheets sent out by the United States Bureau of Standards.

METHOD OF TESTING

"Before calibrating an aneroid barometer under varying pressures, the workmanship and mechanical adjustment are tested; first, by repeatedly tapping the instrument and noting the 'average deviation' of the pointer reading; second, by striking the edge of the instrument against the hand in an inclined position, first with its face to the right and then to the left, in each case reading it immediately afterward in a horizontal position and noting the difference or 'shift' of the two readings; third, by noting the 'vertical correction' or amount by which the reading of the instrument in a horizontal position exceeds the reading in a vertical position. These tests will serve to detect friction, looseness, and lack of balance, respectively.

"The aneroid barometer is then compared with a mcrcurial barometer diminishing the pressure at the rate of one inch of mcrcury in five minutes until the lowest point of the scale is reached, where it is held for five hours to determine the drift in the reading at constant pressure.

INSTRUMENTS

"This drift is the crucial element in determining the quality of a given aneroid barometer. It is a measure of the elastic lag in the individual instrument and the greater it is, the more noticeably will the readings depend upon the rate of change of pressure.

"The 'fast corrections' given are the corrections which are to be applied algebraically to the aneroid barometer readings in order to get the true pressures after a continuous rate of change of 1 in. of mercury in five minutes, while the 'slow corrections' given are the corrections which must be applied algebraically to readings taken after a lapse of five hours. The 'fast corrections' are determined by direct observation. The 'slow correction' at any given pressure, x inches of mercury below the initial pressure, is then assumed equal to the algebraic sum of the 'fast correction' at that point, plus x times the drift. The difference between the fast and slow corrections is a measure of the reliability of the aneroid barometer as an absolute—as distinguished from an interpolation instrument

"If in calibrating the aneroid barometer at any given speed, the corrections though large were found to vary uniformly with the pressure drop x, below the initial pressure, this would mean simply that all the scale divisions were too large or too small in the same ratio and would in no way disqualify the aneroid for use in interpolating between known altitudes or pressures. When the corrections are plotted against the pressure drop, the average deviation of the corrections from the best representative straight line may be termed the 'calibration deviation.' This is a measure of the reliability of the aneroid barometer for interpolation proper as distinguished from its use as an absolute instrument.

"The temperature coefficient of reading is the increase in the reading of the aneroid barometer at constant pressure per degree Centigrade above 20°C., the pressure corrections of the instrument having been determined at approximately this temperature. The temperature coefficient of scale value is the increase in scale value (*i.e.*, pressure change corresponding to unit change in reading) per degree C. above 20°C. For example, if it were -0.1 per cent., the aneroid would indicate a 2 per cent. smaller change at 0°C. than at +20°C., the true pressure change remaining the same."

ACCURACY REQUIRED FOR CERTIFICATION

"(1) In a properly adjusted aneroid barometer the average deviation by tapping should not exceed twice the 'least reading' nor in any case 0.02 in. of mercury.

- "(2) (3) Neither the shift nor the vertical correction should exceed five times the 'least reading' nor in any case 0.05 in. of mercury.
 - "(4) The proportional drift should not exceed 1½ per cent.
- "(5) The quantity expressing calibration deviation should not exceed five times the 'least reading' nor in any case 0.05 in of mercury.
- "(6) The temperature coefficient of reading should not exceed 0.002 in. of mercury per degree Centigrade.
- "(8) (9) The numerical value of the correction should in no case exceed 0.10 in. of mercury plus \aleph_{00} the range of the aneroid below 30 in. of mercury.

"The foregoing qualifications are by no means those of an ideal aneroid barometer and are given simply to indicate the degree of accuracy which is actually attained in commercial aneroid barometers of the first quality. No instrument will be certified whose errors greatly exceed the foregoing limits.

"In addition to these requirements, which are equally applicable to all classes of aneroid barometers, it is desirable that the instruments of each particular class should excel in those particulars which are especially important in the use to which the instrument is put."

SCHEDULE OF FEES1

- "(a) Regular test, ordinary accuracy. Fee 50 cents per inch range of pressure below the 30-in. point independently of the number of instruments tested, plus \$1.00 for each individual aneroid.
- "(b) Temperature coefficient, \$2.50 for one plus \$1.00 for each additional aneroid submitted."
- "(c) Short test, giving approximate correction at lowest point of scale to insure that aneroid is in good working order, but not recommended where an accuracy better than 3 per cent. of range is desired, \$1.00.

"For testing of barometers to an exceptional degree of accuracy, or for calibration over an exceptional range of pressure, a further charge will be made. For testing the scales of thermometers attached to barometers the fee will be in accordance with Circulars Nos. 2 and 8, respectively.

"For educational and scientific institutions and societies a discount of 50 per cent. will be allowed on all tests under the above schedules."

¹ The testing of barometers; U. S. Bureau of Standards, Circular No. 46.

Adjustment of the Aneroid.—The adjustment of the aneroid is concerned chiefly with the tension of the spring and the position of the index. The former determines the distance over which the index shall move for a given change of pressure, and the latter its reading. Both of these are adjusted to agree with standard dials.

The tension of the spring is controlled by three adjusting screws (D, D, and F of Pl. III, A) but ordinarily can be readjusted by means of the screw E, exposed at the back of the instrument. This screw has left-hand threads so that turning it to the right increases the tension of the spring and decreases the distance moved over by the index for a given change in pressure.

The position of the index can be changed by lifting it from the pin (L, Pl. III, A), upon which it is mounted, and replacing it in the desired position. It can also be moved by means of the screw used for adjusting the tension of the spring, since any change in the tension changes the position of the index. Small changes can be quickly made in this manner.

A properly adjusted aneroid will almost invariably read higher in feet than bench marks referred to sea level because its scale starts about 890 ft. below this datum plane. It is not essential that the aneroid should agree exactly with the mercurial barometer and constant adjustments for small errors are to be discouraged. The method of adjusting aneroids is given here not because it is assumed that the user will adjust his own instrument, but that he may have a better understanding of its construction and limitations. As a rule all delicate instruments are best adjusted by the makers.

Use of the Aneroid.—The aneroid barometer has two uses; one as a weather indicator, and the other as a means of determining elevation. We are concerned only with the latter. The aneroid is not now so extensively used in geological work as formerly, a condition due largely to the fact that the telescopic alidade has been found to be the more practical in many cases, but there remain many conditions under which it is a valuable instrument for the determination of elevation. Inasmuch as it gets out

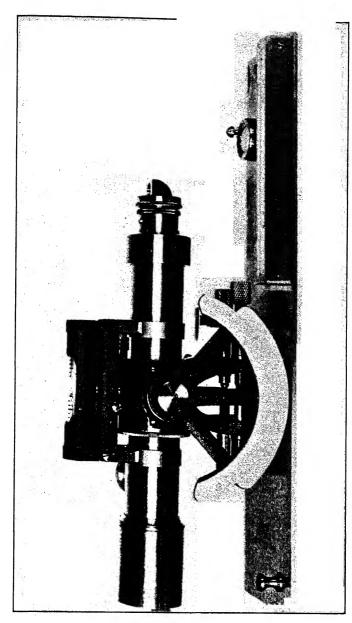
of order rather easily and its readings are subject to the irregularities of the atmospheric pressure, it can be best used only by those who understand the conditions affecting these changes. The relations of its accuracy to weather conditions and methods of use are in general but poorly understood by the users.

A good instrument will record correctly the atmospheric pressure, irregularities in its readings are due then to similar irregularities in the pressure. Weather conditions permitting, the intelligent use of the aneroid will give results sufficiently accurate for all geologic work. The chief draw-backs to its use are that the weather conditions are very often unfavorable, that a proper understanding of its limitations is not universal, that other methods of determining elevation are often more practical, and that after securing the elevations of the various points, their locations must be determined by some other means. For discussion of use of aneroid, see also pp. 101–111.

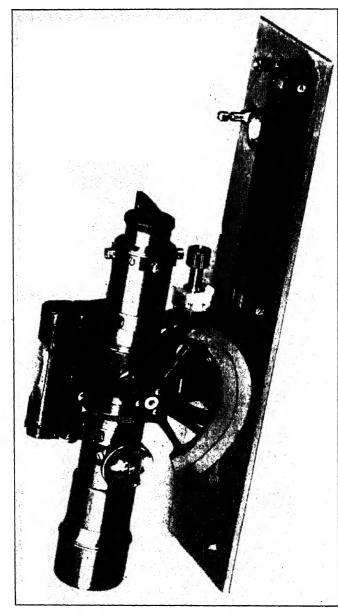
ALIDADE

An alidade has been described as a radius bearing a vernier which travels around a graduated arc or circle and which is used to measure angles. It is also applied to a straight-edge with sights such that the bearing of a point can be obtained and its direction ruled off on paper. The simplest and earliest form of the alidade is a flat straight-edge on each end of which is a raised sight. This form is still used in running traverse lines and in making topographic surveys. In such cases the distances are obtained by triangulation, by chaining, by pacing, etc., and the elevations generally by the use of an aneroid barometer and a hand level. Alidades are always constructed of non-magnetic material so that they will not deflect the compass needle.

The telescopic alidade, which is the type now most commonly employed in petroleum geology, was used by Breighton in the latter part of the 18th century. This consists of a transit telescope, with its various attachments, mounted upon a flat base or straight-edge. This change has increased the accuracy of the work and has the additional advantage of permitting rapid determination of both horizontal and vertical distances.



Gale type alidade.



Gale type alidade. (After Young & Son.)

Telescopic alidades vary in size, in construction, and in the number and kind of attachments. The larger and more accurate ones have a base 18 to 24 in. long and 23/4 to 3 in. wide, are mounted on a standard or pillar 31/2 to 41/2 in. high, and have a magnification of 16 to 32 diameters. Such instruments are more delicate, heavy, and cumbersome than are required for oil field geology, a condition which has resulted in the use of smaller instruments of the same general type and especially in the manufacture of small, compact instruments of fair illumination and magnification with or without a pillar mounting. The telescopes of such instruments have an active aperture of 11/16 to 11/16 in., a magnification of 13 to 18 diameters, and are mounted upon bases about 11 in. long and 23/4 in. wide. In the Gale type1 of alidade (Pls. IV and V), the telescope is mounted directly upon the base by standards about 2 in. in height. Such an instrument is only about 31/2 in. high and weighs about 41/2 lb. complete in leather case with sling. It is thus easily carried about the field. Some of the small alidades have the telescope mounted upon a short pillar, as represented by the Bausch & Lomb "Frontier" model (Pl. VI).

Barrel.—The barrel of the telescope serves the double purpose of excluding objectionable light and of acting as a base to which lenses and various other attachments may be fastened.

Objective.—The objective, the lens system nearest the object, consists primarily of a double-convex lens, but in practice of a combination of two lenses one of which is double-convex and the other plano-concave. Its object is to receive and so refract the light as to form at the plane of the cross-wires a small, inverted image of the object as perfect and brilliant as is practicable.

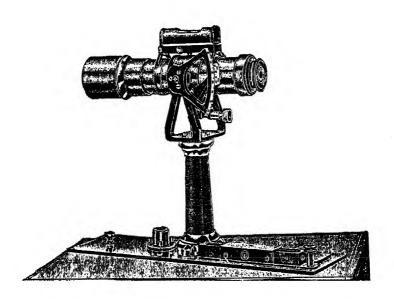
White light consists of a mixture of all colors, each of which is refracted or bent from its course differently in passing through a given substance, such as a lens. Thus the image formed by rays of each color of light will be at a different point. This is known as *chromatic aberration*. Likewise the rays of light which

¹ A small telescopic alidade planned by H. S. Gale in 1909.

pass through the edge of a spherical lens are brought together. to focus, at a point nearer the lens than are those which pass through the central portion, a condition known as spherical aberration. Both of these conditions are largely overcome by using lenses in pairs so related in composition and shape that one neutralizes much of the aberration caused by the other. reality such an arrangement brings but two colors to a common focus and corrects but one zone for spherical aberration. correction is made for the axial zone, the defect becomes rapidly more serious as either the curvature or the diameter of the active portion of the lens is increased. The shorter the telescope, the shorter the possible focal length and the greater the lens-curvature demanded; but with any given lens combination, the instrument maker has only the choice of two evils; to obtain better illumination (requiring a larger active lens aperture) at the expense of the definition, or better definition (which demands a smaller active lens aperture and less aberration) at the expense of the illumination. Both are essential and the manufacturer makes such a compromise as he thinks best for each type of instrument. The outer and more erratic rays are absorbed by black, circular diaphragms. The active aperture of the telescope is therefore the diameter of the effective portion of the objective, i.e., of that portion through which light that reaches the eye has passed, and not necessarily the diameter of the objective.

The active aperture may be roughly determined by directing the telescope at the sky and moving a pointer over the surface of the objective so that it can be seen in the small illuminated circle which will be noticed at the opening of the eye end when the head is drawn back a short distance from the telescope. If the pointer is moved until it just disappears from view and the distance from it to the edge of the object-glass measured, the active aperture can be computed by subtracting twice the distance from the diameter of the objective. A hand magnifier will be of assistance in viewing the image of the objective.

¹ Baker, I. O., Engineers' surveying instruments.



Bausch & Lomb Frontier type alidade.

The aperture of a telescope is of great importance since, within certain limits, it determines the amount of illumination, the degree of magnification to be used, and the resolving power.

"The resolving power of an objective is the measure of its ability to form separate and distinct images of two neighboring points of an object. Its value depends upon the aperture of the objective and is expressed by the angle subtended at the center of the lens by the distance separating the two closest points which it can image separately, i.e., resolve. The relation connecting resolving power and aperture is $\frac{12.6}{D} = \theta$, where θ is the resolving power in seconds of arc, and D is the aperture expressed in centimeters. It applies without modification only to white points on a black background. An objective of 1 in aperture will then resolve two points which, from the center of the objective, appear under an angle of 5 seconds.

"To make the matter more concrete, an angle of 5 seconds will include 1.53 in. at a distance of one mile. Two points separated by 1.53 in. will just be resolved by an objective of 1 in. aperture if the illumination of the object and the magnification of the telescope are sufficient. If the aperture of the objective is less than 1 in., no amount of magnification or light will suffice to dispel the appearance of the image as a single point."

In other words, it is impossible to read marks of the value of tenths of a foot on a rod at a greater distance than 4128 ft. by means of an instrument which has an aperture of 1 in. or less. Naturally the above theoretical distance is not equalled in practice, the maximum figure obtained being about 3600 ft.

Eyepiece.—The eyepiece or ocular has the same defects as has the objective but not in the same degree. Its magnifying power is greater and the focal points for the various colors of light are therefore closer to the lens and closer together. However, because of its greater convexity, or magnifying power, that property of a lens which causes a flat object to appear as a convex surface and which is known as spherical aberration is much greater. This is likewise nearly eliminated by the use of lens combinations.

¹ Bausch & Lomb Optical Co., Metro manual, p. 78, 1915.

The eyepiece, after the manner of a microscope, is used to magnify the small inverted image formed by the objective. By focusing the eyepiece upon the cross-wires and adjusting the position of the objective until the image is brought to a focus upon this plane, the object, the cross-wires, and the stadia wires can all be seen at the same time. An inverted image is obtained by the use of a positive eveniece and an upright one by the negative eyepiece, the chief difference being that in the latter an extra lens combination is employed to again invert the image, i.e., the image is inverted a fourth time and appears right side up. The two types give what are known as inverting and upright telescopes. While it may be convenient to employ an upright instrument where it is used only occasionally, any inconvenience caused by the inverting type is soon overcome when the instrument is used often, and it is evident that some light and accuracy are lost by the use of an extra lens combination.

Magnification and Illumination.—The accuracy and rapidity of the work as well as the maximum length of sights are dependent to a large extent upon the magnification and illumination of the instrument. A fair degree of magnification is quite essential while high magnification may be detrimental in certain classes of work. Besides increasing the size, cost, and weight of an instrument, it is found that under bad weather conditions the particles of foreign material, such as dust and water, in the air may be so magnified as to interfere with the clearness of sight. Higher magnification likewise increases the apparent distortions due to heat waves and the vibrations of the cross-wires and stadia wires. Magnification is closely related to illumination and within certain limits is determined by the diameter of the objective.

The illumination varies with the intensity of the light, a condition not controlled by the instrument, and also with the active area of the objective. The distance at which a rod can be read with the same instrument varies from day to day with the intensity of the light. Readings which are difficult or impossible to get because the rod looks dark or black are due more often to

insufficient illumination than to low magnification, in fact the magnification may actually be too high to give the best illumination of the image on dark days. Not uncommonly troubles due to poor illumination are wrongly thought to be due to low magnification.

"The brightness of the image of a telescope is inversely proportional to the second power of the magnification and directly proportional to the second power of the aperture. The expression for absolute illumination of the image is, $I = A \frac{d}{m}$, where A is a constant when comparing two instruments side by side on the same object, d is the aperture of the objective, and m the magnification. A 10 per cent. increase of aperture will give over 20 per cent. increase in brightness, while 10 per cent. increase in magnification will result in about 17 per cent. loss of illumination."

"If the conditions under which the engineer has to work were constant, there would be just one degree of magnification which would be the most efficient for any given instrument. In practice, however, he finds it necessary at times to take short sights and at other times long sights, now working in bright sun light and now in poor light of cloudy days or the dusk of evening.

"The ocular of a telescope will form a real image of everything in front of its anterior focal plane, including the object glass. The image of the object glass appears as a small disk of light, called the 'exit pupil,' which may be seen by placing the eye eight or ten inches back from the eyepiece. The quotient of the effective aperture of the objective divided by the diameter of the exit pupil, is the magnification of the telescope.

"The brillance of the image depends upon the relation between the diameter of the pupil of the eye and the diameter of the exit pupil. The image is as bright as possible when the magnification is such that the exit pupil is equal in size to the pupil of the eye. If the magnification is increased beyond this point the illumination falls off, whereas with still lower magnification there is still no gain in brilliancy since part of the light is intercepted by the iris diaphragm of the eye while, on the other hand, there is a distinct loss in resolving power.

"The aperture of the eye may vary from about 1.5 mm. in bright

¹ Bausch & Lomb Optical Co., Metro manual, p. 79, 1915.

sunlight to 6 mm. or more in the dusk. If we aim at all times to secure an image of the greatest brilliance, and still retain as much resolving power as possible, the magnification would have to be varied, then, between the limits of 17 and 4 diameters per inch of aperture. In practice we make a compromise between loss of light, due to too high power, and loss of detail, due to too low power. Longer telescopes are favored with a somewhat larger aperture and increased focal length, which makes it possible to advance the range of magnifications."

Stadia Wires.—The invention of the trachymetric principle is attributed to G. Montanari who published at Cologne in 1674 a method of placing equidistant filaments of known value on a diaphragm.² The use of the stadia with the alidade seems to have been discovered independently by a number of observers but probably first by James Watts ³ in 1770. Professor Fontana of Florence proposed the use of spider lines in place of human hair or silk filaments in 1775, but Ramsden was doubtless the first to mount them.⁴

The determination of distance by the stadia method is based upon the relations of similar triangles. The two stadia wires are so inserted that they are on opposite sides of, parallel to, and at equal distances from, the horizontal cross-wire. The distance between these wires is usually such that as one looks through the telescope the distance between the points at which they intersect the rod (that is, the stadia intercept) is approximately equal to 1 ft. for each 100 ft. the rod is distant from the instrument.

The objective, O (Fig. 25) has two focal planes, F_1 and F, the focal length being shown as f. The two dots a and b at the diaphragm, F, represent the position of the stadia wires and c the distance from the objective, O, to the center of the telescope axis, C.

$$FO = OF' = f$$
.

¹ Bausch & Lomb Optical Co.; Metro manual, p. 111.

² Salmoraghi, A., Geometria applicata, Milan, p. 278, 1884.

³ Van Ornum, Prof. J. L., Bull. of Univ. Wis., Vol. 1, p. 354.

⁴ Bausch & Lomb Optical Co.; Metro manual, p. 103, 1915.

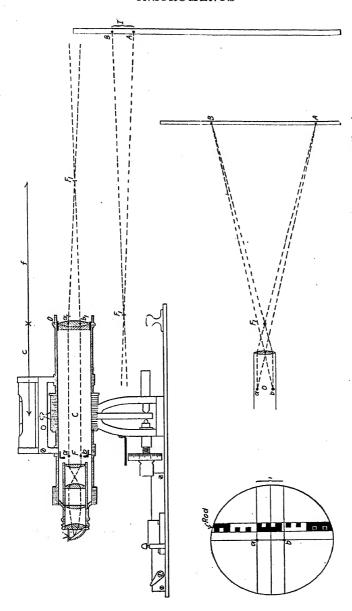


Fig. 25.—Section of alidade showing determination of distance by means of stadia wires.

A and B are the points at which the stadia wires a and b, appear to intersect the rod when viewed through the telescope.

Vision is obtained by light passing from the object to the eye. Part of the light from a point, A, on a rod at a distance, D, from the point F_1 will pass through the point F_1 , on to a_1 , then with refraction through the objective, O, past the upper stadia wire, a, at F, and out through the eyepiece as indicated. In the same manner light from B will pass through F_1 and b_1 and past the lower stadia wire. If the stadia wires are so placed that the distance between them is one one-hundredth of the focal length,

$$f \div 100 = ab = i,$$

then, applying the relation of similar triangles, the following formula is derived:

$$a'b':OF'::AB:D$$
 or $i:f::I:D$, from which $D=I(f/i)$.

The distance D is measured from the point F'. It varies directly with I (i and f being constants) and is equal to the constant (f/i) (usually 100 and known as K) times the stadia intercept, I. The true distance from the rod at AB to the center of the instrument, C, is

$$D + (c + f)$$
 or $KI + (c + f)$.

The value of the constant (c + f) can be obtained by focusing the telescope on a distant object and then measuring the distance between the center of the objective and the diaphragm and adding to this the distance between the center of the objective and the center of the telescope axis. It has a value of only about 1 ft. and may ordinarily be dropped without giving an appreciable error.

Stadia markings may consist of spider web, of diamond scratches upon glass, or of platinum wire. Prominent instrument makers do not agree as to the relative value of these various

types, although the choice can often be made by considering the conditions under which the instrument is to be used. Spider web, from 0.0001 to 0.0003 in. in size, is advantageous in that it is fine, cheap, and easily applied. It is objectionable because under damp conditions it may sag and change the value of the constant K. Diamond scratches are permanent and unchanging, but it is agreed that the glass reticule which these require absorbs about 5 per cent. of the light under the best conditions, and even more if dust or moisture settles upon either side of it, since this lies in the focal plane. Platinum wires can be drawn to the desired fineness by being previously surrounded by silver, which, after the wire is drawn, is removed by acid. They are opaque and consequently easily seen, but it is claimed that they lose their elasticity and that they do not yield to shocks and jars, but break.

To verify or adjust the constant, K, or to mark a rod to be used with a given instrument, stake off a distance in even hundreds of feet approximating the length of the average sight to be taken. Place the instrument so that the center of the axis of the telescope is a distance equal to its constant (c+f), behind one stake and note the points at which the stadia wires intersect the rod at the other. The space between these should be divided into as many equal divisions (usually feet) as there are hundreds of similar divisions in the distance, if K is to equal 100. Usually instruments are adjusted for a distance of about 500 ft.

The determination of distance by the stadia method is very advantageous because of the rapidity with which the work can be carried on. With care, a high degree of accuracy can be obtained, certainly sufficiently high for petroleum geology work. In general the errors of observation increase with the length of sight and are assumed to be doubled if a half-stadia interval is used and the result multiplied by two; that is, if the reading of the intercept is taken between the horizontal wire and either the upper or lower wire instead of between the upper and the lower, as is usually done. The maximum distance that can be determined directly by simple stadia wires and cross-wires without

the use of other attachments is 200 times the length of the visible portion of the stadia rod. In some instruments a third stadia wire is inserted midway between one stadia wire and the horizontal cross-wire. In such cases the maximum length of sight directly determinable would be 400 times the visible length of the rod, using one-fourth stadia intercept and multiplying the result by four.

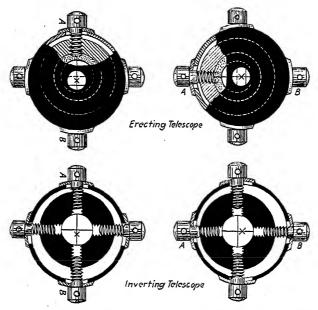


Fig. 26.—Reticule showing method of adjusting cross-wires. (After Berger.)

To Replace Stadia Wires.—It sometimes becomes necessary to replace stadia and cross-wires. If these are constructed of spider web, no great difficulty is usually experienced in replacing them in a satisfactory manner.

The wires are mounted upon a ring known as the reticule. To take this from the telescope, remove the two horizontal screws (Fig. 26), rotate the reticule 90° with the vertical screws as an axis, insert a pencil or sharpened stick into the horizontal

screw hole now exposed, remove the two vertical screws, and withdraw the reticule by means of the pencil or stick which should now be supporting it.

Old web may be used, but it is usually best to catch a spider, preferably one of the small black kind, and cause it to spin some fresh, clean web. If the spider is shaken off the end of one prong of a small forked stick, and the resulting web caught across the other prong, it is then in an ideal position for mounting.

In most cases the relative position of the wires cannot be changed, their proper position being indicated by scratches on the reticule. These lines having been determined and the reticule mounted in a horizontal position, the web across the fork of the stick is carefully lowered into position, accuracy being obtained by the use of a magnifying glass. By mounting the reticule above the general surface, the lowering of the forked stick to that surface may produce a proper, constant tension in the web, which is then fastened in position by placing a small drop of thick shellac at each side of the reticule at the point the web crosses it. After being allowed to stand a few minutes, the excess web can be safely broken off. The desired number of wires may be secured by simply repeating the operation. Some prefer to secure the proper tension of the web by attaching a small piece of paper as a weight to each end. The reticule is finally replaced in position, and the vertical and horizontal screws inserted.

Adjustment of the Line of Collimation.—The line of collimation is the line of sight as defined by the cross-wires and the optical axis of the objective when the two are in perfect adjustment with respect to each other. To test, sight upon some object and note carefully the position of the intersection of the cross-wires as referred to the field of view. Rotate the telescope slowly on its longitudinal axis and note whether or not the point of intersection of the cross-wires appears to move. Rotate 180° and adjust for one-half the apparent error. Repeat until correct.

The adjustment consists of moving the reticule to which

the cross-wires and stadia wires are attached, to such a position that the point of intersection of the cross-wires coincides with the optical axis of the objective. The reticule is held in place by four screws (Fig. 26) by means of which it can be moved in any direction normal to the longitudinal axis of the telescope, and at the same time, be held firmly in position by means of the compression between opposing screws.

Because the image of the reticule is inverted one or more times before it reaches the eye, in adjusting the wires of an inverting telescope they should be moved in the direction which will apparently lessen the error, while with an erecting telescope, they should be moved so as to apparently increase it. Most, if not all, telescopic alidades are of the inverting type, but those with a prismatic eyepiece appear to be only semi-inverting as the image is right side up although the right and left sides are exchanged. In this case the movements of the vertical screws are governed by the laws of the erecting telescope and the horizontal ones by those of the inverting type.

Vertical Arc or Circle.—The vertical arc by means of which the inclination of the telescope is determined in degrees and minutes may be graduated in various ways. In small alidades, such as the Gale type, only angles which are less than about 28° can be read directly because at this point the end of the telescope strikes the base. The arc used has, then, an angular value of about twice this angle, a comparatively large radius, and rather large, legible divisions. Commonly it is laid off in degree and half degree divisions and supplemented by either a single or a double, direct-reading vernier (Pl. IV and Fig. 27).

The vernier is made by laying off on one or both sides of a zero mark 30 equal divisions, such that their sum is equal to 29 of the half-degree divisions of the arc, that is, each of these divisions is one minute smaller than the half-degree divisions, or is only 29 minutes. This being the case, each successive line on that side of the zero towards which the degree reading is being taken is one minute closer to the last line it passed on the arc than is

the preceding one; and consequently the number of minutes to be added to the arc reading is determined by noting the number of divisions that occur before a mark on the vernier coincides with one on the arc.

The numbering of the divisions of the arc may be arranged as desired. In many cases the no-angle point (horizontal posi-

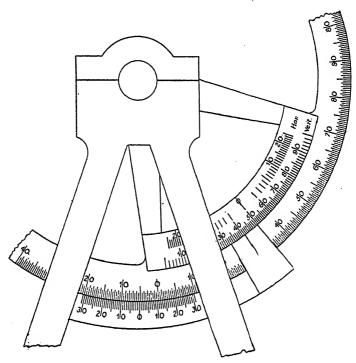


Fig. 27.—The vertical and Beaman stadia arcs. (After Gurley.)

tion of the telescope) is marked zero and the degrees numbered in groups of ten in each direction therefrom (Fig. 27). The angles of sights on points higher than the instrument will then be read on one side of this zero mark and of those lower than the instrument on the other, making it necessary to use two verniers

and to prefix some sign, such as + or -, to each reading in order to distinguish one from the other. These very fruitful sources of error can be largely eliminated by indicating the no-angle position on the arc by some number, such as 30, larger than any inclination at which the telescope can be read (Pl. IV). In marking the arcs so that the numbers range downward on one side of the no-angle position and upward on the other, some instrument makers indicate sights of elevation by numbers larger than that of the no-angle point while others show sights of depression by such readings. The former is to be preferred.

Beaman Stadia Arc.—The determination of elevation by means of the vertical arc is made by multiplying the stadia intercept by a function (1/2 sin 2v) of the angular elevation of the point. It is evident that in place of graduating an arc in degrees it can be laid off in terms of the desired function and that the computations can be further simplified by marking only those angles the values of the desired function of which are simple whole numbers. Thus if the angular elevation of a point is two of these divisions, its elevation above the instrument can be quickly determined by multiplying the stadia intercept by two.

Except in horizontal sights, the stadia constant (usually 100) times the stadia intercept on the rod gives only the approximate inclined distance, the horizontal distance being obtained by multiplying this by another function $(\cos^2 v)$ of the vertical angle. An arc can likewise be laid off in simple whole numbers of this function, or in per cent. so as to show how much the approximate inclined distance must be diminished to obtain the true horizontal distance.

The Beaman stadia arc (Fig. 27) has such graduations. It was devised by W. M. Beaman, a topographer of the United States Geological Survey, and patented in 1906. It consists of two scales on an arc, or circle, attached to the vertical limb of the telescope after the manner of the ordinary vertical arc, the three usually being inscribed on the same are or circle. One method of attaching the Beaman stadia arc is shown on Plate

IV and in Fig. 27, and another in Fig. 28. The scale marked "Vert.", which reads 41 in Fig. 27 is for determining elevation. The upper scale, marked "Hor.", which reads a little less than 1 (per cent.) in Fig. 27 is for correcting the distance as determined by stadia reading.

The V-graduations represent those angles, through which the telescope can be rotated, the values of the function $1/2 \sin 2v$ of which are simple whole numbers. The spacing is therefore

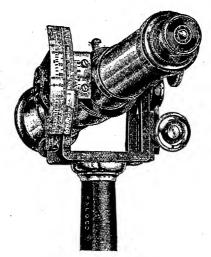


Fig. 28.—The Beaman stadia arc. (After Bausch & Lomb.)

not uniform, as shown by the accompanying table of Beaman stadia arc divisions. (See p. 60.)

In order to avoid trouble and possible error in noting and recording that the point on the rod is higher or lower, as the case may be, than the instrument, the divisions of the V-scale are so numbered that the zero point is indicated by 50. All readings less than 50 are for points lower than the instrument and vice versa. The value of the angle is the difference between the reading of the arc and 50. The H-scale reads in per cent. and, since the horizontal distance is always shorter than the inclined,

the latter is diminished by this per cent. of itself to obtain the former.

VALUES OF BEAMAN STADIA ARC DIVISIONS1

No. of interval	. [•	$\left\{\begin{array}{c} \text{Angle} \\ (\% \sin 2v) \end{array}\right.$	Difference in minutes	No. of interval		$\left\{\begin{array}{c} \text{Angle} \\ (\frac{1}{2}\sin 2v) \\ \end{array}\right.$	Difference in minutes	No. of interval		$\left\{egin{array}{l} ext{Angle} \ (rac{1}{2} \sin 2v) \end{array} ight.$	Difference in minutes j
0		00.00									
1	0	34.38	34.38	16	9	19.89	36.16	31	19	09.48	43.38
2	1	08.77	34.39	17	9	56.31	36.42	32	19	53.75	44.27
3	1	43.19	34.42	18	10	33.01	36.70	33	20	39.00	45.25
4	2	17.66	34.47	19	11	10.01	37.00	34	21	25.31	46. 1
			34.52				37.32				47.50
5	2	52.18	34.59	20	11	47.33	37.71	35	22	12.81	48.82
6	3	26.76	34.68	21	12	25.04	38.08	36	23	01.63	50.31
7	4	01.44	34.77	22	13	03.12	38.49	37	23	51.94	51.99
8	4	36.21	34.88	23	13	41.61	38.95	38	24	43.93	53.89
9	5	11.09		24	14	20.56		39	25	37.82	
10	5	46.11	35.02	25	15	00.00	39.44	40	26	33.90	56.08
11	6	21.27	35.16	26	15	39.97	39.97	41	27	32.54	58.64
12	6	56.60	35.33	27	16	20.51	40.54	42	28	34.20	61.66
13	7	32.10	35.50	28	17	01.67	41.16	43	29	39.50	65.30
			35.71				41.85		-		69.77
14	8	07.81	35.92	29	17	43.52	42.58	44	30	49.27	75.47
15	8	43.73		30	18	26.10		45	32	04.74	

^{1.} Bausch & Lomb Optical Co.

Gradienter Screw.—The gradienter screw is a modification of the vertical arc tangent screw and is so constructed as to furnish a very convenient means of determining vertical and horizontal distances. Its first use for this purpose is credited to Professor Stampher of Vienna in 1873 and the graduated drum attachment to Stebbinger. It consists of a carefully threaded screw which passes through a nut (Fig. 29) fastened to one of the standards, and bears against the clamp arm, the system being firmly held together by means of a spring. In some cases the screw is attached to the clamp arm and bears against a lug fastened to the standards or base, but the result is the same.



Fig. 29.—The gradienter screw.

As the name implies, the gradienter screw was originally intended for measuring in per cent. the inclination of the line of sight, but inasmuch as this is a quick and simple method of expressing the relation of horizontal and vertical distances, it is commonly used for such determinations. Since this relation of an angle is expressed by the value of its tangent (tan V = perpendicular/base = inclination of hypotenuse in per cent.), it is desirable that it be read directly as such. Because only angles the tangents of which may be expressed in simple numbers, such as 0.01, 0.02, etc., are commonly taken, the computations are much simplified.

The desired value of rotation is obtained by giving the pitch

of the screw and the length of the clamp arm such a relation that one complete revolution of the screw will move the telescope through an angle of 34′ 23″, the tangent of which is 0.01. Thus the length of the rod passed over by the horizontal wire during one rotation of the screw is 1 ft. for each 100 ft. the rod is distant from the center of the instrument, and the grade of the line of sight is 1 per cent. for each rotation from the horizontal. To aid in accurate determinations, a milled head or drum divided into 100 parts is attached to the screw and a graduated horizontal bar so placed as to indicate the number of complete revolutions.

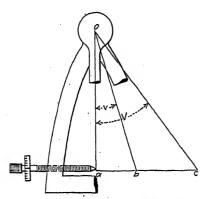


Fig. 30.—Theory of gradienter screw construction.

Some instrument makers have used a screw and arm so related that two revolutions are required to turn the telescope through the above angle. In such cases the drum is divided into fiftieths and one division still corresponds to a grade of 0.01 per cent.

Gradienter screws are constructed according to two principles; the one in which the axis of the screw is always tangent to the same vertical circle and the other in which it is not. The first is theoretically correct in that it turns the line of sight through angles the tangents of which are proportional to the number of revolutions of the screw, the second is approximately so for small angles.

In Fig. 30, let O represent the horizontal axis of the telescope,

the line aO the initial position of the clamp arm upon which the gradienter bears, bO the position of the arm for n rotations of the gradienter screw giving the angle v, and cO a third position of the arm for m rotations of the gradienter screw giving an angle V. If the pitch of the thread be designated by z, then, assuming, that the screw acts in the direction ac, and that the angle caO is 90° .

```
nz = ab,
mz = ac,
\tan v = ab/aO,
\tan V = ac/aO,
\therefore \tan v : \tan V = ab/aO : ac/aO = ab : ac,
= nz : mz = n : m,
```

indicating that in this case the tangent of the angle varies proportionally to the number of rotations of the gradienter screw.

Base and Straight-edge.—The straight or "fiducial" edge is the right hand edge of the base which is beveled and graduated. These graduations should be in the decimal scale to facilitate the plotting of decimal rod readings and, unless otherwise ordered, usually consist of inches subdivided into tenths and fiftieths. The front and back edges of the base should be straight and parallel for it is sometimes convenient to use the left hand or back edge, thus permitting the instrument to remain on and more near the center of the table, when taking sights from stations near the left side of the table top. The base is usually of brass which tarnishes readily and, if in contact with the paper, tends to soil its surface. In some cases this has been avoided by mounting the base upon brown paper, but is now successfully overcome by painting the bottom of the base with a white enamel which does not tarnish, slips readily over the paper, and can be easily cleaned.

Spirit Levels.—Alidades are equipped with leveling devices for both the base and the telescope. Bubble-tubes may be used in either case, but commonly a bull's-eye level is used for the base. If a bubble-tube is carefully leveled and then its ends reversed, the difference in the two positions of the bubble

will be twice the error in adjustment. The striding level must be tested in place on the telescope; it is leveled by means of the tangent screw, removed, and replaced in a reversed position. A base level is leveled by means of the support upon which the base rests and is reversed by reversing the alidade.

Most level carriages are intended to be adjusted at one end only, this end being held in position between two nuts or by means of a screw and a spring. The bubble-tube is adjusted by raising or lowering, as may be necessary, one end of its carriage by means of a vertical screw shown on the bottom of the carriage, or by opposing capstan nuts at the end. An inspection of the bubble will show whether this end is to be raised or lowered and usually will indicate which way the screw should be turned. Rule-of-thumb methods as to the direction in which the screw is to be turned are not practical, so that if it cannot be readily seen by inspection, a trial turn will quickly show which is the right direction. At the first attempt it is best to adjust only for approximately one-half the difference in position shown by the reversed bubble, the final adjustment being obtained by a number of trials.

The bull's-eye level is of low sensitiveness so that slight variations are neither readily noticed nor of particular importance. It may be tested by placing the alidade upon a surface that is known to be level. If the bubble does not assume a central position with respect to the circular graduations, it should be made to do so by adjusting the three small screws shown in Fig. 20.

Care of Alidade.—The alidade should be carefully guarded against shocks which will change the adjustment of its parts, and must be kept free from dust and moisture which may interfere with the clearness of vision and the working of the parts. It should be kept in its case when not in use and when carried in a vehicle should be given a place where it will receive the least shaking. Not uncommonly it is carried on the cushion in the seat.

When handled it should be supported by the base. Clamps should be tightened no more than necessary and tangent screws should work freely and never be forced. Parts should be cleaned before being oiled, and, if covered with oil and dirt, should be thoroughly scrubbed with soap and water. This is particularly applicable to tangent screws, which are liable to stick in cold weather. In general, parts exposed to the dust are not to be oiled, as oil catches dust which binds and cuts the bearings. It is recommended that only a good grade of watch-oil be used, but when this is not available, one may substitute plumbago, rendered marrow, or, if necessary, pure vaseline, although the latter is likely to have some chemical action on brass. Rendered marrow and vaseline, especially the former, may be too thick for winter work. All excess oil should be carefully removed.

The lenses must be clean. It is better to prevent them from getting dirty by the means regularly provided, than it is to clean them often, as the latter tends to destroy the polish of the surface and the sharpness and brilliance of the image. Dust may be removed with a fine, clean brush (preferably of camels' hair). If a brush is not available or sufficient, a piece of chamois skin, a clean, soft piece of linen or silk or, if necessary, a clean pocket handkerchief lightly applied may be used. In no case use the fingers because a thin film of grease is worse than dust. If a liquid is needed, use alcohol, but do not permit it to touch the lacquer on other parts of the instrument, or to come into contact with any Canada balsam cement which may be present. It is seldom necessary to clean lens surfaces other than the outside of the objective and eyepiece. In no case should a lens system be taken apart because a slight relative shifting of its parts might greatly injure the optical properties of the telescope. No amount of adjusting would correct for such an error. It is even possible that in screwing an objective mounting into place a difference of a fraction of a turn may be sufficient to destroy the adjustment of the line of sight, but this can be corrected.

Moisture should be kept out of the telescope. If water gets

into it, remove the eyepiece and dry the parts. If water collects on the objective, remove it, dry it carefully, and fill the barrel with dry air. Use care not to batter the slots in screw heads and never take things apart unnecessarily.

Adjustments of the Alidade.—The uses to which the alidade is put are based upon the assumption that the following relations exist between its parts. (1) The horizontal axis of the telescope is (a) parallel to the base and (b) normal to the "fiducial" edge; (2) the longitudinal axis of revolution of the telescope is normal to the horizontal axis; (3) the longitudinal axis of revolution coincides with the line of collimation; (4) the line of sight as determined by the intersection of the cross-wires coincides with the optical axis of the objective; (5) the axis of the collars upon which the striding level rests coincides with the longitudinal axis of the telescope; and (6) the base and striding levels are in proper adjustment.

Numbers 1, 2, 3, and 5, are carefully adjusted at the factory and no means is provided for their correction. Number 4 concerns the adjustment of the line of collimation and is described under stadia wires. Number 6 is described under spirit levels.

LEVELING AND STADIA RODS

The rod is used in determinations of distance and of elevation. In the United States, distance and elevation are measured in feet so that it follows that the rod should be graduated into foot divisions. For simplicity in computations the feet are further divided decimally, usually into tenths, because in petroleum field work, readings and computations are only carried out to the nearest tenth of a foot. The present tendency in instrument work is to use fewer but better chosen stations, fewer set-ups, and longer sights. These in turn necessitate that the rod be long and of high visibility, that it be sufficiently strong to stand the wear and tear, and yet that it be light enough to be carried with no great discomfort. Inasmuch as these requirements are opposed to each other, a "happy medium" must be found which best fills the particular need.

Description of the Rod.—Commonly rods are made of clear, straight grained, well-seasoned white pine (sometimes specified as "rafted" pine), but yellow poplar and cyprus are also used. White pine is readily obtained, is of uniform grain, and is easily worked. It is lighter and less inclined to warp than either yellow poplar or cyprus but is softer and less strong. Yellow poplar is heavier and harder than cyprus but is inclined to warp, while cyprus is inclined to splinter.

Such rods may consist of one, two, or three sections, the sectional types folding or sliding together so as to be of a convenient length for carrying and for transportation. One-section rods are inconvenient and seldom used. Two-section rods can be folded to a little more than half their length, are fairly strong and convenient, and are in general use. Three-section rods are used to some extent, largely because of their convenient length when folded. Naturally they tend to be less strong and steady and of greater weight than those which consist of one or two pieces only.

The visibility requirements necessitate that the rod be not less than $3\frac{1}{2}$ or 4 in. wide, the determination of distances demands that it be 14 or 15 ft. long, and convenience in carrying requires that it be as light as is consistent with the above requirements, and still be sufficiently strong. Two of the dimensions having been fixed, the weight is kept fairly low by making rods of minimum thickness. This is about $\frac{7}{8}$ or $\frac{3}{4}$ in. at the center, the sections tapering to $\frac{1}{2}$ in. at the end. To reduce the weight still further, the face may be rabbited to the extent of $\frac{1}{8}$ of an in., or the back may be kerfed with a saw or dado.

For fastening the sections together a pair of 1½ by 6 in. strap hinges are desirable, although for very light rods the hinges can be smaller. It is best that there be two hinges, the outer end of the joint of each being brought flush with the outer edge of the rod in order to give a maximum resistance to side strains.

To hold the rod in position when open, one of several devices may be used. A short piece of the same material as the rod may be screwed to the back of the upper section so as to overlap the joint about 4 in. The rod can then be locked open by means of a small door bolt or a hook. This is probably the most satisfactory method. Another way is to use a wooden slide about 14 in. long, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. wide, and $3\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch thick so arranged as to slip through two loops on the lower section and into a loop

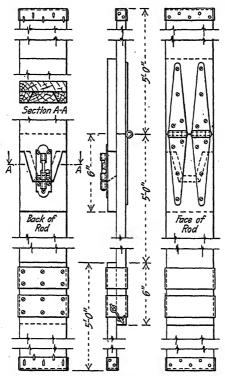


Fig. 31.—Details of stadia rod construction.

on the upper section. The chief objection to this construction is that the loops often get bent. If the lap joint is used the piece should be cut as shown in Figs. 31 and 32, as this not only braces it against side strains but forces it into the proper position for locking. If a hook is used the lap can be a straight piece with a slot near one end to receive the screw eye.

A 15-ft. three-section rod can be folded up to measure 5 or 5½ ft. over all, depending upon the type of fastening used. If both joints are of the hinged type, three pieces each 5 ft. long will be necessary. If constructed with slide joints the pieces must be enough longer to make up for the lap when the rod is open. More often the upper joint is hinged and the lower arranged to slide. In this case the middle section should be 6 in. longer than the others. A sleeve of galvanized iron is made to accommodate this section and fastened to the upper

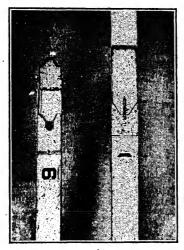


Fig. 32.—Lap-joint construction of stadia rod.

end of the lower section so that the middle section is free to work up and down in it. When extended it is held in place by a small hook.

The ends of the rod should be protected by being bound with galvanized sheet iron, and the face of the rod prevented from rubbing when the rod is closed by the use of rubber bumpers.

Following are specifications of rods constructed in accordance with the descriptions here given. These rods have proved very satisfactory in practice.

In the experiments with rods carried on by the authors, the first 15 constructed weighed 12 lb. each. Rod No. 6 (table of rod specifications) shows a reduction in weight of 2.25 lb. due to making the rod thinner. Rod No. 3 shows the latest design in which the weight has been reduced to nearly half of that of the first rods.

TABLE OF ROD SPECIFICATIONS

Rod No. 6	4
Material	white pine
Length	15 ft.
Sections	2
Width	3.9 in.
Thickness	0.8 in. at center
	0.5 in. at ends
Hinges	$6 \times 1\frac{1}{2}$ in., strap
Joint	lap and bolt
Ends bound with sheet iron.	
Weight	9.75 lb.
Rop No. 3	•
Material	white pine
Length	
Sections	
Width	
Thickness	
Hinges	
Joint	
Ends bound with sheet iron.	
Weight	7 lb.
Rop No. 4	
Material	poplar
Length	
Sections	
Folded length	
Thickness	
Tapered to	· -
Hinges	$1\frac{1}{2} \times 6$ in.
Upper joint	
Lower joint	sliding
Ends bound with sheet iron.	
Weight	10 lb

Visibility of Rods.—The visibility of a rod, or the ease with which its divisions can be recognized at a distance, varies with its width, with the colors used, and with the design painted upon its face.

In general all good designs can be arranged so that their visibility will be about equally increased by widening the rod, or by extending the design over its edges.

Rod designs should be painted in two colors which contrast strongly with each other and with the average background, and one of which reflects a maximum amount of light to the eye of the observer. Any two complementary colors, such as blue and yellow, would fulfill the first requirement but not the second. All such objects are seen by reflected light and the more light they reflect the more readily are they seen, except when seen in contrast with some other color. All fundamental colors, such as blue and yellow, absorb much of the incident light and reflect that of their own color only.

White and black differ much from the average background, are directly opposed to each other, and reflect more and less light respectively than any other colors.

From the above it follows that, other things being equal, the best results are obtained by painting designs in black upon a white background and that the "markers" (known points of exceptional visibility) should be essentially black. Other colors are often used to number the foot-marks, but they are commonly read at short distances only.

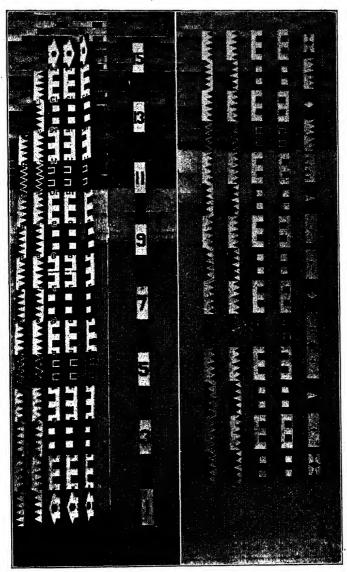
In painting a rod, good results can be obtained by using a good grade of white lead for all but the last coat which may consist of a white enamel, the pigment of which is 100 per cent. zinc oxide. Enamel will not adhere well when painted directly on the wood but gives a more permanent white color than a paint or other enamel which contains lead. Objectionable reflections may be destroyed by rubbing the face of the rod with fine pumice stone or rotten stone and oil. However, reflections from the rod are not undesirable as they are of more value in locating the rodman than they are injurious in reading the rod.

The discussion of the visibility of different rod designs is best limited to their appearance at fairly long distances, 2500 ft. or more, because there is less need of careful choice of designs for short sights, almost all patterns being read quite easily.

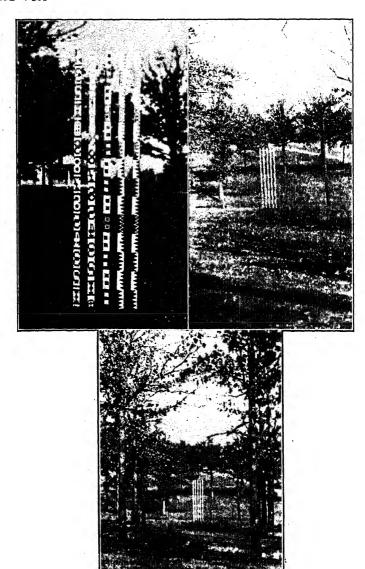
Other things being equal, the reading of rods at distances depends upon the visibility of the designs painted upon them, in the study of which three points are to be considered: first, the ease with which the decimal or fractional divisions of each foot can be separated from each other; second, the readiness with which the foot-divisions can be separated from each other; and third, the ease with which the number of any foot can be determined. A rod may excel in one of these and be poor in the other two.

For every distance from the telescope there is a distance by which two points must be separated in order that they may be seen as such (See p. 47). Thus an alidade with an active aperture of 1 in. which is about the average size, cannot, even under the best possible conditions, resolve as two points, two objects separated by one-tenth of a foot at a greater distance than about 4100 ft. It is to be expected that under the usual working conditions the reading of tenths of a foot will be impossible at distances greater than about 3000 ft. In such cases the visibility of two points is determined by the distance between them rather than by their size.

General engineering stadia rods have about the same proportion of black and white in adjacent foot-divisions. At distances such that the decimal divisions blurr and the colors blend together, the color of each foot-division tends to become that of its average color and can therefore be seen but little if any farther than the decimal divisions. Greater foot-visibility can be obtained only by an "unbalanced" design, that is, by one in which the ratio of black to white is not the same in adjacent foot-lengths. Our experiments have shown that beyond this point the foot-visibility varies directly with the difference in this color ratio. Under these conditions the rod appears to consist of alternate



Stadia rod designs.



Relative visibility of rod designs.

black and white foot-divisions and has what we have termed "blended" visibility, i.e., the foot-divisions are separately visible after the decimal divisions are no longer so. The ratio of black to white may be affected by the choice of the design, by the manner in which it is placed on the rod, by the use of positive and negative feet (using the same design but the opposite colors), and by extending the painting of the design over the edges of the rod.

Divisions on the rod corresponding to tenths of a foot are desirable but can be estimated with a fair degree of accuracy if the foot-marks are visible. Foot-marks on the rod are essential but even they may be estimated in some side-sights. not uncommonly happens that the foot-marks can be seen but momentarily so that the number of a mark cannot be determined by counting from the end of the rod. This often tests the ingenuity of the instrument man who soon learns the height of the top of the rodman's head, of his shoulders, of his waist line, and of his leggings, so that with one statia wire on the top of the rod he is able to determine or estimate the reading of the other. This method is not entirely satisfactory and the use of "markers," points on the rod which can be seen at any working distance, is now quite general. These may consist of special designs or of heavy black bands from two-tenths of a foot to a foot wide across the rod at intervals of about 5 ft. By means of these, and by utilizing the top and bottom of the rod, the number of foot-marks that must be counted or estimated is never more than five and is usually three or less, a number which can be quickly grasped by the eye or easily estimated; and the instrument man can more often tell with what foot-mark on the rod he is dealing. The white diamond shown on several rods on Plate VII is used to better distinguish the top foot of the rod when it is partially obscured by brush.

It is desirable if possible to use a design which has "markers" which is reversible (i.e., has like characters present at equal distances from each end), which has sufficiently high foot-visibility for long sights, and which also has, if possible, decimal divi-

sions to be used for short and more accurate readings. All sorts of rod designs are used in the oil fields and some geologists have gone so far as to use simply alternate plain black and white foot-divisions (Pl. VII).

The use of special designs for each foot (Pl. VII) is not uncommon but they cannot be readily recognized at a distance. Many rods have the feet designated by small red numbers which can be read only at distances of a few hundred feet. Such numbers are convenient in close sights in which the relation of the foot-division to a "marker" cannot be seen because of an obstructed view.

After testing all the designs which have been brought to their attention, the authors have adopted the unbalanced saw-tooth and square designs shown in Plate VII, as being the most satisfactory.

Percentage of Black in Alternate Foot Divisions of Rods in Plate VII

. I DAID	4 TT		
	Odd feet	Even feet	Difference
Positive saw-tooth design Combined negative and positive saw-	51.5	28.5	23.0
tooth design	71.5	28.5	43.0
Square design	76.0	24.0	52.0

The distance at which any rod design can be read varies with the atmospheric conditions and with the telescopes used. These rods were collectively viewed through a Young & Son's alidade (18 diameter magnification and 1½6-inch aperture), and through a Bausch & Lomb alidade (16 diameter magnification and 1-inch aperture) upon a day of only fair visibility, the heat waves being quite pronounced. At a distance of 3600 ft. the foot-divisions of all, and the two-tenths divisions of the square design were clearly visible, while the tenths divisions of the saw-tooth designs could be seen but not counted. At 4200 ft. the same condition was true except that the saw-tooth divisions could not be separately distinguished. At 5280 ft. the two-tenths divisions could still be read but had reached the limit of their visibility. The foot-divisions of all were still distinct. At 7700 ft., the foot-divisions

of all could be seen and counted by reference to the markers, but had reached the limit of their visibility. Plate VIII illustrates the relative visibility of rods.

Summary.—(a) Alternate foot-divisions of a stadia rod should differ as much in their relative amounts of black and white as is consistent with the design.

- (b) Foot-markings should be extended over the edges of the rod.
 - (c) Squares are thought to have better visibility than triangles. 1
- (d) "Markers" are desirable and should not be more than 5 ft. apart.
- (e) There should be some method of recognizing the individual feet other than by reference to "markers." This can be done by numbering the feet or by using a different design for each foot-division.
 - (f) Other things being equal, the simpler the design the better.
- (g) A rod of low foot-visibility can be quickly improved by painting on its back one of alternate white and black feet and using this side for long sights (and vice versa).
- (h) A rod of low foot or decimal visibility can be improved by painting a design of good decimal visibility on one-half and one of good foot-visibility on the other. However, this decreases the value of the rod for leveling purposes.

PLANE TABLE

The plane table is one of the oldest surveying instruments now in use, having been known and used in Europe more than three centuries ago. Its invention is attributed to Johann Praetorius in 1590.² For many years it has been used in government work in Germany, Austria, Italy, India, and by the United

¹ This was suggested by Lester Jones, Superintendent, U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, who states: "Our experience has led to the conclusion that squares are preferable to triangles, especially for long distances." Personal communication.

² VAN ORNUM, J. L., Topographical surveys, their methods and value, *Bull.* Univ. of Wis., Vol. 1, No. 10, 1896.

States Coast and Geodetic Survey, but it is only within the last few years that its value in commercial engineering work has been appreciated.

The plane table consists essentially of a drawing board mounted upon a firm tripod in such a manner that it can be rotated in azimuth (Fig. 33). Leveling screws, extension legs, etc., may or may not be desirable.

The top is of firm soft wood, usually well-seasoned white pine, and so constructed as to be strong and resistant to warping, the last two features being obtained by several ply construction.

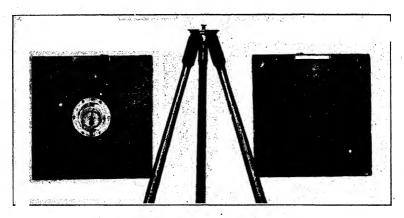


Fig. 33.—The small plane table with compass.

It is highly desirable that at least the corners, preferably the middle of each side also, be equipped with depressed brass screws and sockets by means of which the paper can be firmly attached to the board without the use of thumb tacks and without leaving anything projecting above the surface of the top which might interfere with the free movement of the alidade. Standard sizes of table tops range from 15 by 15 to 24 by 30 in.

The compass may or may not be attached to the table top. In most instances in oil work it is attached to the base of the alidade. The advantages of having it attached to the right or or left side of the table top are: first, that one can always see at a

glance whether or not the table is properly oriented; and second, that there is the saving of a little time in orientation. Most instrument men will recall that occasionally they have forgotten to complete the orientation of the table or have failed to note that it had been changed accidentally.

The chief disadvantage of having the compass attached to the edge of the table top, especially where the declination is as large as 6°, is that the land lines are noticeably not parallel to the sides of the paper, a condition which is not convenient in sectional mapping and not pleasing to the engineering eye. Another disadvantage is the difficulty of accurately replacing a worn and used sheet on the table. Since the control line is the needle itself, the sheet must be so replaced as to give the correct angular relation between the line of the needle and the land lines. This condition arises when, after a sheet has been removed from the table, it is found desirable to continue on it the work started there.

In case the needle is attached to the alidade, the land lines may be conveniently made to have any desired relation to the edges of the paper; the paper can be taken off the table and replaced without reference to its former position; and the compass will usually receive a little better care than when attached to the table. The disadvantages of fastening the compass to the alidade are that a little time is lost in placing the straight edge of the alidade parallel to the magnetic reference line each time the table is to be oriented or its orientation tested, and that in most instances the compass interferes with the free use of the vernier screw.

For those tables with attached compass, the needle is about 4 inches long and the needle box only of such width as to permit of the reading of 3° on each side of the zero point.

The tripod is constructed of well seasoned hard wood so as to be strong and yet light. The top is fastened to it by various methods, the chief essentials being ease and firmness of attachment, ease and adjustability of rotation of top, and lightness. Because of their weight, screw leveling heads are not often used in oilfield work, the larger tables being equipped with special leveling devices such as the Johnson movement¹ or with adjust-

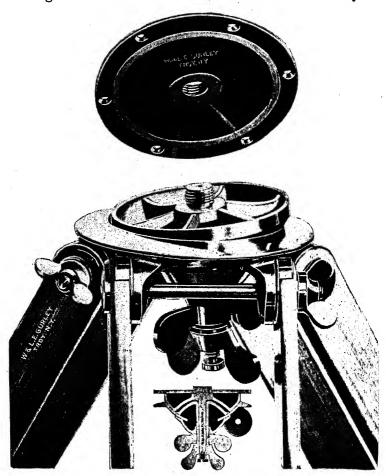


Fig. 34.—Johnson plane table movement and split leg tripod. (After Gurley.)

able skeleton legs, preferably the former. These increase the ¹ Invented by W. D. Johnson, of the United States Geological Survey.

weight of the table somewhat but add greatly to the steadiness of the top and to the ease with which it is leveled. The Coast and Geodedic Survey have also developed a special type of table.

The Johnson movement (Fig. 34)

"is essentially an adaptation of the ball-and-socket principle, so made as to furnish the largest practical amount of bearing surface. It consists of two cups, one set inside the other, the inner surface of one and the outer surface of the other being ground so as to fit exactly. The inner cup is in two parts, or rather consists of two rings, one outside the other, one controlling the movement in level and the other that in azimuth. From each of these rings a screw projects beneath the movement, and upon each of these screws is a nut by which it is clamped. There is no tangent screw for either the leveling or the azimuth motion, as none is required."

Other things being equal, the larger the top the more unsteady it is, especially under the windy conditions which characterize the high, barren points commonly chosen as the best places for instrument stations. Therefore the use of smaller tables is often to be recommended, and special equipment is then not so essential; but in nearly all cases, whether the top is large or small, the Johnson movement is well worth while.

The chief care of the plane table consists in protecting the compass, if it is attached to the top; and in preventing injury to the bearing plate and the tripod head, because the latter is exposed and easily injured when the top is removed.

The plane table can be used to advantage in many kinds of areal mapping. Its chief advantage is that observations are placed directly upon the map with the saving of much time, and with the avoidance of those inaccuracies frequently resulting from the recording of data and its later transfer to the map.

PAPER

Paper is a compact mat of vegetable fibers. While there are some 400 varieties of fibers that can be used for this purpose,

¹ Gannett, Henry, Manual of topographic methods, 1906.

writing and drawing papers are made largely from linen and cotton rags.

"Good drawing paper must combine many different features, and these the buyer should be able to distinguish, to be in a position to discriminate between various kinds, so as to make a selection suitable to the purpose for which he intends to use the paper.

"First in importance is the material from which the paper is made, and second the mode of manufacture, both of which become manifest when the finished article is used. Good drawing paper should be strong, of uniform thickness and surface, stretch evenly, and should neither repel nor absorb liquids. It should admit of considerable erasing without detriment to its surface, should not become either brittle or discolored by reasonable exposure and age, and should not wrinkle when stretched or when inks or colors are applied to it.

"It is impossible to combine all these features in one paper, so that all may be apparent in their utmost degree of perfection; thus, the greatest strength cannot be combined with the finest surface, as is particularly exemplified in the case of manilla fibre, which, although one of the strongest materials used in the manufacture of paper, cannot be made into drawing paper.

"The careful draftsman is therefore compelled to select that paper which unites to best advantage those qualities which are the most adapted to his special requirements. To make a personal selection every time he is in need of paper is generally impracticable. He is therefore mostly obliged to rely upon the descriptions of the papers offered him, and then to trust that the one selected will be as described and can be obtained again in the same quality at any future time."

Because of their fiber construction papers expand and contract differently in different directions and may not resume their original condition when the moisture is removed. Such changes may result in serious errors in case of very accurate work; but in oilfield mapping the chief objection to unequal shrinkage and expansion lies in the fact that the paper lies loosely upon the table top and is difficult to work upon. To counteract this tendency two or more thicknesses of paper, or paper and cloth, are mounted together with the direction of the longer dimension

¹ Keuffel and Esser Co., Catalog, 1915.

of the fibers of one at right angles to that of the other. In mounting, the sheets are either compressed between rollers and dried by passing over heated rollers or they are stretched, mounted, and left to dry over a smooth, flat surface. The latter process is supposed to produce the better results. Such sheets are naturally rather thick and hard to roll, but objectionable shrinkage and expansion may be entirely eliminated by this means.

The larger the sheet, the longer the time it is to be in actual use on the plane table, and the greater the humidity changes to which it will be subjected, the more necessary it becomes to use mounted paper and to choose it carefully.

Either ruled or unruled paper may be used. Ruled paper, assuming that it is ruled to the proper scale, has some advantages in laying off distances and assists one in keeping in mind the relative position of the observer and the land lines and monuments. It is disadvantageous in that there is always more or less trouble in properly orienting the paper and in that the lines tend to obscure data, especially when recorded with a hard pencil. Most geologists and instrument men prefer unruled paper.

Ruled paper is generally printed in blue, yellow, or green, *i.e.*, in colors which photograph white. The object of this is that the drawing may be inked in and photographed without the lines showing on the finished print.

Contrary to what might be expected, perfectly white paper is not to be prefered for field work as it reflects the bright sun light in such a dazzling manner as to be objectionable. A light shade of gray shows the pencil marks nearly as well and is more pleasant to work upon.

Sheets of semi-transparent celluloid, one surface of which has been rendered dull or roughened so as to make it possible to use a lead pencil on it, have been used to a slight extent as a substitute for paper on the plane table. It was used to some extent by the Corps of Engineers of the army during the recent war and has also been used by a few instrument men engaged in geologic work.

While the use of celluloid has some advantages for certain

types of work it has a good many disadvantages which under ordinary conditions more than offset the advantages. Its chief advantages are that it is perfectly water-proof and that a single sheet can be used over and over again, since pencil marks can be readily washed off with a cloth moistened with gasolene. Furthermore it is possible to make blue prints directly from the field map if celluloid is used. The most important disadvantages in the use of this material are as follows: it never lies perfectly flat on the table; it is very susceptible to temperature changes; it is difficult to see pencil lines on the sheet especially if one uses a hard pencil, and a soft pencil will rub off; it is difficult to make clean erasures unless one has gasolene at hand; the use of a pin point will soon make a sheet worthless; and the first cost is high.

It is doubtful whether the possibility of making direct blue prints is of much value, especially in cases in which more than one field sheet is used in adjacent areas. The difficulty of handling probably more than makes up for any advantage derived, and by using transparent paper the same results can be obtained. However, in areas in which only one sheet is to be used it might be worth while to consider the use of celluloid. The fact that it is water-proof is no doubt of some advantage but even this is seldom of any great moment. When weather conditions are so bad as to require perfectly water-proof plane-table sheets it is generally impossible to do careful work with a telescopic alidade, as the lenses will get fogged in spite of everything one can do, and better results will be obtained if such time is devoted to office work. The fact that a sheet can be used a number of times is more than balanced by the greater initial cost.

Some of the difficulties in the use of celluloid can perhaps be successfully overcome. For instance, in erasing pencil marks it is convenient to fill a hollow metal penholder with gasolene and plug the open end rather tightly with cotton. The cotton will allow sufficient moisture to come through to make clean erasures and if a cap is placed over it when not in use it is not inconvenient to carry. Concerning the detrimental effects of

pin-marks on the celluloid, it has been found through experience that accurate work can be done without the use of a pin. Many instrument men never use one, relying merely on the eye to place the ruler of the instrument in position, but some time is lost thereby.

Everything considered, it is extremely doubtful whether celluloid offers any decided advantage over paper as a table covering, and it will probably never have any wide use except in those cases in which it is necessary to work during very moist conditions.

CHAPTER II

INSTRUMENT METHODS

In petroleum work the geologic examination must usually precede leasing, and is so closely related to the securing and giving of oil and gas leases that it necessarily partakes of the demand for haste. The large amounts of money involved require that the work be done with due care. It follows that the work must be carried on with the maximum rapidity consistent with a sufficient degree of accuracy. The first means towards this end is the choice of the best method. When the method involves the use of an instrument man, as is usually the case, the rate at which the work progresses is limited largely by the ability of the geologist who acts as rodman to cover the ground and to work out the conditions; and to a less degree by the delay caused by the instrument man in taking his observations. To the end that the latter may delay the geologist as little as possible, he should know all the practical methods of obtaining distance and elevation, the accuracy of each method and the time consumed by each, and should choose with this object in view. Among those he should know are the methods for locating points without the aid of the geologist.

DETERMINATION OF DIRECTION

In running traverses in oil field work, directions are determined, as a rule, in one of the two following ways. (1) The bearing of the given line of sight is taken by compass or transit, and expressed as so many degrees and minutes east or west of north (or more rarely of south). Practically all the compasses commonly used by geologists are equipped with a device for setting off the local declination (magnetic variation from true north)

in such a manner that the readings observed are in terms of the true, rather than the magnetic directions. The observed directions are then plotted, by means of a protractor, on the map. (2) In operations with a plane table and alidade, the table is first set up and oriented, then the alidade is so placed that its straight-edge bisects the known point, and it is then sighted upon the distant object. A line is thereupon drawn through the known station in the direction of the unknown point, this line being the desired bearing. In this manner the line is plotted directly upon the map without measuring its relation to the cardinal directions. Whether the bearings are true or magnetic will depend on whether the table was oriented to true or magnetic directions.

DETERMINATION OF DISTANCE

Pacing.—Approximate distances, sufficiently accurate for reconnaissance work, and in some cases satisfactory for detailed mapping, are often secured by pacing. The method consists simply of walking with uniform stride, and counting the steps. The degree of accuracy which may be expected varies with the character of the country, and is greater in open, level regions than in wooded or hilly ones. An experienced compassman in average hilly, wooded country may be expected to be in error not to exceed 2 per cent., as a rule, although under very bad conditions the error might be greater. Allowance must be made, of course, for variation of stride in going up and down hills and through thick brush. It is here that experience counts for most in pacing.

The standard pace, which is supposed to represent the stride of the average man, is 2000 to the mile. Some advise an effort to conform to this step; others believe greater accuracy can be secured by using the natural stride, and determining over a measured course, the number of steps used per mile. It must be borne in mind that the natural stride varies between early morning, when the worker is fresh, and late in the day when he is tired; with the slope of the surface; with the obstructions en-

countered, such as grass and brush; and with the firmness of the soil.

Some count each footfall; others count double paces, that is, each right, or left, footfall; still others count every fourth step. This is governed in part by the distance to be paced continuously, in part by the mapping scale, and in part is a matter of personal preference.

Ability to retain numbers and to count without giving the matter conscious attention, comes with practice. various devices for keeping count. Some conveniently note the hundreds by closing their fingers successively; others exchange small pebbles from hand to hand; and others use tally belts having loops that may be slipped for each hundred. There are also counting machines of various types that work by a pressure of the thumb. The pedometer is a device intended to avoid the necessity of counting. It is about the size and shape of a large watch, and is to be carried in the pocket. In it is a nearly balanced weight, that moves with each jar of the body as a step is taken, and this movement is recorded by the counting apparatus. The pedometer gives fair results where the country is open and level and the walking continuous. However, each movement of the body is recorded and counted whether a step is taken or not, and this fact renders the instrument useless under most conditions.

A variation of the pacing traverse is that of the horse pace. In moderately open country, excellent results can be secured by counting the pace of the saddle animal. The average horse has a stride that is very uniform in length. It is easily counted by the lurch of the saddle at each step, without looking. The number of steps to the mile must be determined by trial over a measured course. Single or double steps can be counted as desired.

When pacing is used only occasionally, it seems best to use the natural stride, obtaining its value by trial and keeping the length fairly uniform by constant attention when varying conditions are found. When extensive mapping is to be done by pacing,

it is advised that, unless one is of unusual stature, a pace of convenient length, such as 2000 to the mile, be chosen and strictly adhered to. A pace of 2.64 ft., 2000 to the mile, is slightly shorter than that of the normal stride, but it scales readily; is one that can be kept up throughout the day and when the mind is busy with other matters; and is believed to be no more difficult for the average man to learn than any other length. Since any regular stride is unconsciously maintained only through practice, it is but little, if any more, trouble to adopt a convenient one.

On gentle slopes it is customary to use longer steps to allow for the inclined distance; but on slopes which are steep one of a number of methods may be used. Some simply estimate the horizontal distance from the top to the bottom of short slopes, some attempt to avoid error by lengthening their stride, some learn to drop every third or fourth step according to the steepness, others use a combination of methods.

Buggy Wheel Traverse.—Another method of determining distance along roads or in open prairie country is by counting the revolutions of a buggy wheel. The circumference of the wheel may be measured and the revolutions per mile calculated, or they may be tested on a measured course. Estimated corrections must be made for going up and down hills. In general the method is more accurate than pacing, especially in level country.

If but little of this work is to be done, a rag tied to a spoke will serve to identify each revolution. If the work is extensive, an automatic counting device may be attached to the wheel.

Automobile Traverse.—In country which can be travelled in a car, distances can be determined closely enough for most purposes with a good speedometer which reads to tenths of a mile.

Intersection Methods.—The intersection or triangulation method may be used to locate many nearby points without the loss of the time and exertion that would be required of the rodman were he to go to them. It may also be employed for the location and checking of the position of the alidade with respect to known points, and for the location of distant stations which may be later used as control positions for more detailed mapping.

A good instrument man tries to get all the desirable, available information with the least possible expense of time and effort on the part of the geologist or rodman. Commonly he is left to his own resources to locate desirable but unessential features, such as houses, creeks, roads, etc., and not uncommonly for the location of necessary information such as wells and land lines. Such locations are made largely by intersection and are plotted directly upon the map without measuring.

At the first spare moment after each set-up, the instrument carefully sights upon and lightly marks the direction of such visible points as he desires to locate. At the next set-up the operation is repeated, the location of each point being determined by the intersection of two lines of sight upon it. Not uncommonly points on streams or roads are determined by the intersection of one line of sight with a fence or land line of known position. These are the common forms of triangulation in oil field work and are of greater service than many instrument men appreciate.

Resection is a form of intersection in which the position of the instrument or observer is determined by means of backsights upon known points. When using a plane table and a non-telescopic alidade, it is frequently convenient to set up the instrument at a desired point and locate one's position by the backward extension of lines of sight upon two or more known points. This requires that two known points of suitable angular position can be seen from the place to be located. With only two points known, it also requires that the table be oriented by means of the compass needle.

It is also possible, by means of three known points, all visible from the unknown set-up, to locate the table without orienting by the needle. This solution is known as the "three-point-problem," and may be found explained in any good text on surveying. It is not of practical use in petroleum mapping, and is not given here.

Location by resection alone is but little used with telescopic alidades because in obtaining the elevation, it is but little more

A, the point on the map representing station 69 is moved parallel to that line of sight into the line of sight from B, at 71' which completes the check.

Triangulation carried on by itself consists of measuring a base-line of known length and the location of points by the intersection of lines of sight from its two ends.

The length of a base-line may be determined by pacing, stadia, chaining, or such other measurement as is best adapted to the accuracy of the results desired. From point a at one end of this base line the bearing of an unknown point c is taken or plotted. This can be done with an alidade and a plane table, a transit, or a compass. In a like manner another line of sight upon point c, is taken from the other end of the base line, at b, and plotted on the map, this sight-line being prolonged to intersect the sight from a. The intersection of these two sight-lines will indicate the location of the unknown point. Its distance from either a or b can now be scaled from the map.

The accuracy of the method depends upon the accuracy with which the base line and the angles of bearing have been measured, and also upon the angle which the two lines of sight make with the base and with each other. For careful work the base-line is usually measured with chain or tape, and the angles or directions laid off with transit or alidade, while the angle of intersection of the sights with the base and with each other should not be less than 30°.

For less accurate work, or for reconnaissance, the base may even be measured by pacing, and the angles of the bearings by means of a compass. Almost any angle of intersection, however small, is preferable to simply estimating position.

Stadia Methods.—Horizontal Wire.—Simple Intercept.—The stadia wires of an alidade are usually so spaced as to intercept on a rod when held normal to them and to the line of sight an interval of 1 ft. for each 100 ft. the rod is distant from the anterior focal point of the objective. In measuring distance the operation is reversed, the intercept on the rod times 100 giving the distance. If the rod was always so held as to be normal to

the line of sight, the correct distance, whether horizontal or inclined, would be obtained, but this is not practicable. It is, therefore, necessary to make suitable corrections because the distance as ordinarily determined is only the approximate inclined distance and not the true horizontal distance which is usually desired.

In Fig. 36, the rod is represented by MN; the center of the instrument is at O, the anterior focal point of which is at F_1 ; and (c+f) is the instrument constant. The observed intercept BA is greater than the true intercept ab so that to obtain

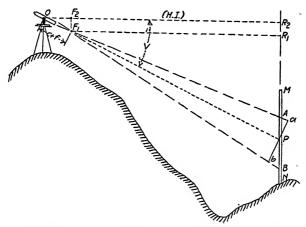


Fig. 36.—Showing reduction of apparent to true distances. (After Bausch & Lomb.)

 F_2R_2 two corrections must be made, one because of too large an intercept and the other to reduce the inclined distance to the horizontal. These are made as follows:

The interval, AB, as read on the vertical rod, MN, is greater than the true interval, ab.

Let I = stadia interval, AB,

K =stadia constant, usually 100,

H =correct horizontal distance, OR_2 ,

V =correct vertical distance, PR_2 .

Then
$$v + OPR_2 = 90^\circ = APa + OPR_2$$
, but $v = APa = BPb$.

Assuming AaP and BbP to be right angles, $aP = AP\cos v = bP = BP\cos v$, and $ab = AB\cos v$, showing that the rod reading must be multiplied by $\cos v$ to obtain the correct intercept, ab .

Whence
$$F_1P = K(AB \cos v)$$
,
 $F_1R_1 = F_1P \cos v = K(AB \cos^2 v)$;
also $OF_2 = OF_1 \cos v = (c+f) \cos v$,
but $H = OR_2 = F_1R_1 + OF_2$,
and $H = KI \cos^2 v + (c+f) \cos v$.

Again
$$V = R_2P = (F_1P + OF_1) \sin v$$

$$= [(c+f) + K(AB\cos v)] \sin v$$

$$= KI\cos v \sin v + (c+f)\sin v.$$
but $\cos v \sin v = \frac{1}{2}\sin 2v$,
and $V = KI \frac{1}{2}\sin 2v + (c+f)\sin v.$

The accuracy requirements of petroleum geology permit of the omission of the distance from the center of the instrument to the anterior focal point of the objective, that is the constant (c+f), the value of which is usually less than 1 ft. The formula then becomes simply,

$$H = KI \cos^2 v$$
, and when $K = 100$, $H = 100 I \cos^2 v$.

It is possible for the rodman to hold the rod normal to the line of sight by means of a right angle attachment on the rod which is sighted upon the alidade. This method gives the correct inclined distance, making the correction formula for inclined distance,

$$H = KI \cos v$$

but the rod must be changed to the vertical position before the vertical angle and horizontal wire reading are taken and it is no more inconvenient to use a table giving the values of $\cos^2 v$ than it is a table of cosines.

Example 1.—If we assume the stadia intercept (AB, Fig. 36) to be 14.5 ft.; the vertical angle, v, 21° 33′ when the horizontal wire cuts the rod at 4.7 ft., PN; the instrument constant (c+f),0.7 ft.; and the zero reading on the vertical arc, 30° 00′, then:

Computation for horizontal distance,

$$\cos^2 8^{\circ} \ 27' = 0.9784$$
 (see table II, Appendix). Approximate inclined distance $= KI = 1450$ ft. $H = KI \cos^2 v$ [omitting the value $(c+f) \cos v$].

 $(c + f) \cos v$]. = $100 \times 14.5 \text{ ft.} \times 0.9784$ = 1419 ft.

 $v = 30^{\circ} - 21^{\circ} 33' = -8^{\circ} 27'$

Note that the error that would have resulted from using the approximate inclined distance is 31 ft.

Computation for vertical distance,

When $v = -8^{\circ} 27'$, $\frac{1}{2} \sin 2v = 0.1454$) (see table III, Appendix). $\sin 8^{\circ} 27' = 0.1470$ (see table of sines). $V = KI \frac{1}{2} \sin 2v + (c + f) \sin v$. $= 100 \times 14.5 \text{ ft.} \times 0.1454 + 0.7 \text{ ft.} \times 0.1470$. = 210.8 ft. + 0.1 ft. = 210.9 ft.

This is the correct vertical distance between the alidade and the point on the rod cut by the horizontal wire when the vertical angle was taken. To obtain the vertical distance between the instrument and the point on which the rod was placed, increase this amount by the rod reading, thus

$$210.9 \text{ ft.} + 4.7 \text{ ft.} = 215.6 \text{ ft.}$$

When (c+f) equals 1 ft., an angle of about $5\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ will make a difference of approximately 0.1 ft. With angles lower than this, the correction for (c+f) may be neglected in the computations for elevation.

Half-stadia Intercept Method.—Distances such that the legible portion of the rod is less than the stadia interval are usually obtained by reading one-half of the stadia intercept by means of the middle wire and one of the stadia wires. Such an intercept is multiplied by two for the full stadia interval. Thus a distance of 2800 ft. may be read from a 14-ft. rod. Here the error of reading is twice that of the simple stadia method so that the full stadia intercept should be read directly whenever possible.

Estimation Method.—Distance determinations by the simple and half-stadia methods cannot exceed 200 times the length of the rod; 2400 ft. with a 12-ft. rod, 3000 ft. with one 15 ft. in length. Commonly the lower foot or two of the rod is obscured by grass or other obstructions decreasing the distance to about 2100 and 2700 ft. respectively. The above method consists of first placing the lower stadia wire on the lowest recognizable point on the rod and estimating the distance the middle wire is above its top by comparing it with a known length of rod. The rod intercept plus the estimated distance should be a half-stadia interval.

This having been determined, the wires are moved until the top of the rod appears to bisect the distance between the middle wire and one of the stadia wires. This rod intercept when multiplied by four should give the stadia interval. If the two methods do not agree to within a foot, the observation should be repeated.

This method is quick and sufficiently accurate for many observations. It can be profitably used in part or in full with all instruments at times, but is chiefly valuable with instruments which have no gradienter screw.

Comparison Method.—If after placing the lower horizontal wire on the lowest visible point on the rod, the middle wire is above the top of the rod a distance not to exceed the length of the rod, this distance can usually be readily determined by noting the angle generated by this wire as it is brought to bear on the top of the rod and by turning off an equal angle in the same direction. The distance this wire is now below the top of the rod is

approximately the same as that which it was formerly above it. This distance added to the length of rod intercepted and multiplied by two gives the full stadia intercept. Providing the rod reading can be determined, this method is good for a distance 400 times the length of the rod (where K = 100).

The value of the angle is better determined in divisions of the gradienter screw as this is much more rapid than the reading of minutes, but care should be taken to eliminate any possible error due to back-lash in the screw.

Vertical Stadia Wire Methods. Vertical Rod.—This method may be used for sights so long that the half-stadia interval exceeds the length of the rod, in which case ordinary stadia readings cannot be taken.

After the instrument man has taken the necessary observations for the determination of direction and elevation, he rotates the telescope on its longitudinal axis until the stadia wires are brought into a vertical position, places the middle wire (now also in a vertical position) on the rod, and signals to the rodman the method he desires to use. The latter marks the point of the original sight and moves to one side at right angles to the line of sight until his rod as held in a vertical position coincides with one of the stadia wires. This having been determined, he measures with his rod the horizontal distance between the two points and later reports it to the instrument man. greater accuracy could be obtained by using the other stadia wire in place of the middle one, alidades reverse the image so that it is very easy to get directions mixed and quite hard to rectify incorrect signals. By the use of the middle wire, it is immaterial to which side the rodman moves.

While somewhat involved and requiring a little more time than other methods, this would be ideal for obtaining the stadia interval for long sights, were it not for the fact that at those distances for which this method would naturally be used, it is impossible for the rodman to recognize with the unaided eye complicated signals. If the rodman is provided with a field glass and will keep it with him, this method may be used for any dis-

tance at which it is practical to take observations. It gives the correct inclined distance from the anterior focal point of the objective, and should be multiplied by the cosine of the vertical angle to obtain the true horizontal distance, but the fact that the distance is great almost determines that the angle is small and the correction negligible.

Horizontal Rod.—The correct inclined distance can also be obtained by observing a rod held in a horizontal position normal to the line of sight by means of the stadia wires rotated into a vertical position, but the cosine correction for horizontal distance must still be made.

Gradienter Screw Method.—It is possible to obtain distance by means of the gradienter screw since the intercept of a full revolution of the drum (two revolutions with some instruments) is equal to 1 ft. on the rod for each 100 ft. the rod is distant from the center of the instrument.

This method could be well used if the telescope had no stadia wires or if they were temporarily out of order, but is not used when either the stadia or half-stadia method is applicable because it is not so rapid and probably not so accurate, as there might occur a change in the position of the instrument between the two readings. Naturally, the optics of the central portion of the objective, as used by the gradienter method, are the better, but the stadia method has the advantage, in that both wires are under simultaneous observation and any deviation during the reading is, therefore, noticeable. However, the gradienter is a valuable means of determining distance when the visible portion of the rod as viewed through the telescope does not reach from one stadia wire to the middle horizontal wire. In all cases care should be used to avoid back-lash by turning the drum in the same direction to each reading.

This method gives the approximate inclined distance and is subject to the same correction as when determined by means of the stadia except that this distance is from the center of the alidade and does not involve a correction for the instrument constant (c+f). The formula is

Two methods are available: one in which the observer notes the space on the rod passed over by the horizontal wire for a rotation, or a convenient decimal fraction of a rotation, of the screw (the use of a constant drum difference or angle and a variable intercept); and the other in which he determines what part of a revolution is required to move the wire over a convenient length of the rod (a constant rod intercept and a variable drum difference).

The use of a constant drum difference such as 10, 20, 25, or 40 divisions (values chosen because of their simple relations to a full revolution, 100) facilitates computations. The method is objectionable for long sights in that it does not employ a maximum rod intercept, thereby increasing the error of observation; and it also necessitates that one be able to read or estimate closely any point on the rod that happens to be cut by the horizontal wire.

For short distances one has only to set the horizontal wire at the top of the rod (usually the point of greatest visibility and one permitting of the use of a maximum length of rod), read the drum, depress the line of sight one full revolution of the drum, and read the rod. In no case is it advisable to slip the drum on its shank in order that the zero may coincide with the index. The difference in the rod readings is the stadia interval.

At distances greater than 100 times the visible portion of the rod, a fraction of a rotation is used. After placing the horizontal wire at the top of the rod, the gradienter is turned down some simple fraction of 100 divisions, such as 40, $33\frac{1}{3}$, 25, or the like, using the largest of these which permits the wire to remain on the rod, and the rod is then read. The space on the rod moved over by the horizontal wire is then multiplied by the reciprocal of the fraction used (the reciprocals of $49\frac{1}{100}$, $33\frac{1}{3}/100$ and $25\frac{1}{100}$ are $2\frac{1}{2}$, 3, and 4 respectively). This gives the stadia interval.

Example 1.—With the horizontal wire at the top of the rod, the drum of the gradienter screw reads 27. When the screw is turned one full revolution in a direction to lower the line of sight and again reads 27, the wire has moved over 12.5 ft. on the rod.

The stadia interval is 12.5 ft. and the approximate inclined distance 1250 ft.

Example 2.—With the horizontal wire at the top of the rod, the drum reads 67. When turned to read 27¹ (40 divisions down) in a direction which lowers the line of sight, the wire passes over 10.7 ft. of the rod.

Since 40 divisions = 13.6 ft., 100 divisions = $10\%_{40}$ of 13.6 ft. = 34.0 ft., which is the stadia interval. The approximate inclined distance is 3400 ft.

Example 3.—With the horizontal wire at the top of a 15-ft. rod, the drum reads 3. When turned down to read $66\frac{2}{3}$ ($\frac{1}{3}$ of a revolution down), the wire cuts the rod 2 ft. above the ground or 13 ft. below the top.

1/3 revolution = 13 ft.
1 revolution = 39 ft. (stadia interval).

Approximate inclined distance = 3900 ft.

With the constant intercept method, the observer first takes a drum reading on the top of the rod and then turns down to the lowest recognizable point of the rod or the rodman's person (or vice versa) and again reads the drum. This method is more accurate than the former as it uses a maximum length of rod, and it can be more often employed as it is not so essential that the rod design be legible, the observer using any two known points such as the top and bottom of the rod, or the top of the rod and some part of the rodman's person. The number of drum divisions corresponding to a known rod interval being known, the rod length equivalent to a full revolution, 100 divisions, can be computed. The computation is not so simple as in the first case but can be quickly obtained by the use of a table (Table IV, Appendix).

Example 1.—Drum reading at top of 15-ft. rod is 48 and at bottom 32.

48 - 32 = 16 divisions = 15 ft. 1 division = ${}^{15}\!\!\!/_6$ ft.

¹ It is customary to construct alidades so that on elevating the line of sight the drum will read successively 3, 4, 5, etc. (and vice versa).

 $100 \text{ divisions} = \frac{150}{16} = 93.75 \text{ ft. (stadia intercept)}.$ Approximate inclined distance = 9375 ft.^1

Example 2.—The drum reading at top of a 15-ft. rod is 16. The bottom of the rod and the foot marks are not visible but the reading at the top of the rodman's leggings (known to the instrument man to be 1.5 ft. above the ground) is 94.

15 ft. - 1.5 ft. = 13.5 ft. (used length of rod)
16 - 94 = 22 divisions = 13.5 ft.
1 division = 13.5 ft.
100 divisions = 61.37 ft. (stadia intercept).
Approximate inclined distance = 6137 ft.

Vertical Arc Method.—The angle subtended at the instrument by the rod can be measured in minutes, but as this involves the time necessary for two arc readings, it is not used as a means of determining distance when more rapid methods are available. When using an alidade with stadia wires but no gradienter screw, the vertical arc may be conveniently employed to determine those distances which exceed the limits of the half-stadia interval method, i.e., greater than 200 times the visible portion of the rod.

Our experiments indicate that in reading the vertical arc of small alidades with the aid of a magnifying glass the average error in reading is about 50". This is 4.8 per cent. of 17' 12", a half-stadia interval. Considerable care must therefore be exercised to keep the angle as large and the reading as accurate as possible if the results are to attain even moderate accuracy, because the error of observation is approximately the same for large and small angles but is a much greater percentage of the latter than of the former.

As in the case of the gradienter screw, this method also affords the choice of a constant angle and a variable intercept or of a constant intercept and a variable angle.

The use of a constant angle does not materially simplify the computations, since seconds cannot be read or even estimated

¹ For rapid determinations of distance see Table IV.

with these alidades, and it is therefore impossible to use accurately full or simple fractional divisions of the stadia angle-Therefore, while the use of a constant angle necessitates that the rod be actually read or estimated, under average conditions and with a rod of high visibility, this method is probably quite as accurate as the use of a constant rod intercept and a variable vertical angle reading, perhaps even more accurate.

The use of 34' in place of 34' 23" for the stadia angle or of 17' for a half-stadia angle gives a value which is only 1.1 per cent. too small. If it is so desired, the result can be easily increased by this percentage of itself for the correction. The correct distances corresponding to vertical angles from 1' to 17' with rod intercepts from 6 to 15 ft.can be quickly secured by reference to Table V of the Appendix. To interpolate or determine the distance in cases in which the intercept involves tenths of a foot, increase the value read from the table for the integral part of the intercept, by an amount obtained thus: take the figures common to the columns corresponding to the observed angle and the 10-ft. intercept, move the decimal point two places to the left, and multiply by the number of tenths.

Example.—Suppose an angle of 11 minutes gave a rod intercept of 13.4 ft. In the horizontal column (table V, Appendix) for 11 minutes and the vertical column for 13 ft. are the figures 4063 ft. In the 11 minute and 10 ft. columns we find 3125 ft. Moving the decimal point two places to the left gives 31.25 ft., a value corresponding to an intercept of 0.1 ft. When multiplied by 4 tenths, this gives 125 ft., the value corresponding to an intercept of 0.4 ft. Then 4063 ft. + 125 ft. = 4188 ft.

Since it is possible to read the vertical arc to minutes, which correspond approximately to ½4 of a stadia angle, this method can be used for sights much longer than can be taken by the ordinary stadia method. The distance determined is the approximate inclined distance from the center of the instrument, and is subject to a correction for horizontal distance.

Beaman Stadia Arc Method.—The first space on each side of the zero point (50) of the Beaman stadia arc is equal to the

stadia angle, 34′ 27″. Therefore it is possible to determine distance by sighting the horizontal wire on the top of the rod, moving the vernier to the zero point, and depressing the line of sight one division, whereupon the distance on the rod moved over by the horizontal wire gives the stadia intercept.

The distance refers to the center of the alidade but is otherwise subject to the same corrections as an ordinary stadia determination and is not so accurate. However, where the Beaman stadia arc is used to determine elevation, the correction factor shown on the H-scale is used to obtain the correct horizontal distance. (See pp. 58–59 and 120–122.) Since the smallest division of the Beaman arc corresponds to a whole stadia angle, this method cannot be used for sights longer than can be taken by the usual stadia method. While one can conceive of conditions under which this method may temporarily be of value, the writers have never known such to occur.

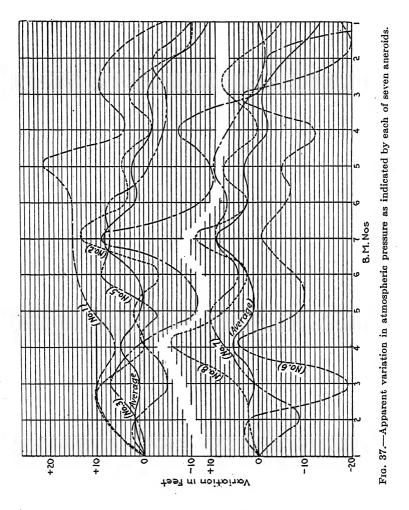
DETERMINATION OF ELEVATION

ANEROID BAROMETER

Methods of Observation.—In field work one should attempt to avoid pressure irregularities by a proper choice of method, and should apply such corrections to the results as are practicable and possible. Two general plans are followed; one method in which simultaneous observations are taken, one set being at a permanent station; the other method, in which but a single set of observations is required. The latter plan will be described first.

Single Observations.—This is the simplest and most common as well as the most practicable method of mapping small structures with slight differences of elevations such as characterize the Mid-Continent Field. Here observations are quickly taken over a series of stations, the results being checked by returning to the starting point or to some other point the relative elevation of which is known. (See bench marks, pp. 183–185.) The barometer may not check, or even in case it does check there may be irregularities of pressure that have come and gone, leaving

errors in the line of elevations, such as are shown to be possible by Fig. 37. In such a case repetition, especially if the observa-



tions are taken in the opposite order will usually give fairly accurate results, providing the method and weather conditions

ANEROID READINGS AND COMPUTATIONS OBTAINED BY READING ALL! ANEROIDS AT EACH BENCH MARK. 37 Fig. APPARENT VARIATIONS IN ATMOSPHERIC PRESSURE ARE SHOWN IN

Rolla, Mo. Time: 1 to 4 P. M., Sept. 30th, 1915. Woother: Slichtly cloudy light wind from the southeast.

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¹ Average variation omitting values of No. 4 which is obviously out of adjustment.

are favorable. Figure 37 shows that errors of twenty or more feet may occur in the course of a traverse, and still the barometer may "check in" rather closely at the end. Such errors can be detected in part by the operator, through a sense of difference in elevation which he gradually develops; by judicious use of the hand level; or by rerunning a traverse in case of doubt.

In general it is far better to have previously located the stations at which the elevations are to be taken, so as to make the time intervening between the starting and the finishing of a traverse as short as possible. In case it is necessary to stop at a station for more than the time required to take the pressure observation, the pressure should again be observed on leaving and the following elevations computed by differences. This eliminates such changes as take place while the observer is at the station.

The method of checking by repetition of observations in the reverse order is illustrated in the following table of ancroid observations.

TABLE OF ANEROID OBSERVATIONS

		Going		Returning						
1	2	3.	4	5	6	7	8	, 9	10	
Station	Aneroid reading	Difference in elevation	Trial elevation computed forward	Trial elevation computed backward	Aneroid reading	Difference in elevation	Trial elevation computed forward	Trial elevation computed backward	Elevation	
1 2	1846 1820	 -26	1000 974		1840 1810	+30 - 8	1002 972	1000 970	1000 972	
3	1812 1836	+24	998		1818	-30 -14	980? 996	978?	998	
4 5 6	1850 1842 1810	+14 - 8 -32	1012 1004 972	1002 970	1848 1840	+ 8 +30	1010 1002	1008 1000	1010 1002 971	

In the above example the barometer read 1846 ft. at station No. 1 at the beginning of the run. At station No. 2 it read 1820, indicating a difference in elevation between Nos. 1 and 2 of -26 ft. and an elevation of 974 ft. (column 4) for No. 2. So much time was comsumed at this point that the aneroid was again read before leaving, and was found to have changed to 1812. At No. 3 the reading was found to be 24 ft. higher than the last reading at No. 2, etc. After reaching No. 6, the observer returned, taking readings on the stations in the reverse order. These barometer readings for the reverse trip are similarly shown in column 6, the differences in column 7, and the trial elevations in column 8. Upon reaching No. 3 it was found that the last determination did not agree with the first one. Before going on to No. 2, the observer took time to discover that the first determination of difference in elevation between Nos. 3 and 4 is essentially correct. The entire difference between Nos. 2 and 4, thus proving the same in both cases, the corrected observation is accepted.

From the above data, four sets of elevations can be computed: two by the use of the initial barometer reading and the two sets of differences, and two by the use of the final reading and the two sets of differences. Only two of these columns, 4 and 9, are commonly used in determining the elevation (column 10) of the points. In averaging these, other things being equal, each is given a weight inversely proportional to the amount of time that elapses between the reading of the aneroid at the point and at the bench mark. In the above case the two trial elevations in columns 4 and 9, except those for station No. 3, are of equal value, but it not infrequently happens that the observer knows one determination of a given point to be more accurate than another, and weights them accordingly.

Simultaneous Observations.—Part of the error due to pressure irregularities, especially those which are regional in their

¹ This does not include the time spent at a station if the aneroid is again read before leaving it, but only the time during which a change in the atmospheric pressure would influence the apparent difference in elevation of two stations.

extent, may be eliminated by the use of two observers. One plots the barometric changes against time at a nearby base station and the other takes pressure readings at the stations the elevation of which it is desired to obtain, noting in each case the time at which the observation is made. Each observation is later corrected by the amount of the barometric variation at the base station at that time.

This method does not eliminate irregularities which are local in nature and which are often the most troublesome, for such may not affect both stations and if so, not at the same time or to the same degree. The method is simple and of considerable assistance where rapid work is being done over a large area, for it does tend to eliminate the larger variations. The base station should be established as close to the place where the field observations are to be taken as is practicable.

Observations at a Selected Time.—It has been suggested that irregularities can be reduced by taking observations at that time of each day at which the diurnal gradient is supposed to be zero. While this method may be of value in certain kinds of work, it is obviously impracticable to limit geologic field observations to a single time each day, especially when the time must be first determined by trial. This method does not eliminate non-periodic irregularities.

Williamson's Method. —This method differs from others in that a curve representing the average daily changes in pressure due to periodic irregularities is obtained by taking hourly observations, during a number of days. The greater the number of observations that are averaged, the more representative the curve should be. Field barometric differences in elevations are increased or decreased by the amount shown by the curve for that time of the day at which they are taken.

This method is an adaptation of the simultaneous observation method so that it can be carried on by a single observer. While it is not so accurate as the former, it is of value where approximate elevations of widely separated points are to be obtained by a single observer.

¹ Williamson, On the use of the barometer, pp. 39-42.

Summary.—There are other methods such as that of Whitney, of Plantamour, of Marshall,¹ of Ruhlmann, of Gilbert,² etc., but all fail to eliminate a considerable portion of irregularities. The latter methods require two or more observers and such an elaborate series of observations that the expense involved together with the loss of time and the remaining uncertainty of the results makes them impracticable for commercial work.

So far as is practicable, an observer should choose a method that avoids irregularities; corrections for such are always uncertain and only approximate at best.

REDUCTION OF INCHES OF MERCURY TO ELEVATION IN FEET

Pressures as read in inches of mercury may be reduced to feet of elevation by reference to Airey's table for the determination of altitudes (Table VII of the Appendix). These relations are for readings when the mean temperature of the atmosphere is 50° Fahrenheit. The temperature correction must be first applied if the mean temperature differs from this.

These are the values used in graduating the dials of surveying aneroids in terms of inches of mercury and in feet of elevation. The elevation as read in feet does not correspond to the elevation of a point as referred to sea level because the dial scale starts at a point some 800 or 900 ft. below sea level and because of the many variations in pressure due to causes other than difference in elevations.

Corrections for True Elevation

Correction for Temperature of the Instrument.—The various parts of an aneroid or a mercurial barometer expand and contract with changes of temperature, producing variations which, unless corrected, may influence the reading of the instrument. The variation in an aneroid for a given temperature change depends upon the size, composition, and relation of its parts. Most good

¹ U. S. Geol. Survey of the 100th meridian, Vol. II, p. 523.

² Report of the U. S. Geol. Survey for 1880-81, pp. 405-561.

aneroids are marked "compensated," by which it is intended to indicate that, owing to the use of metals with different expansion coefficients, the sum of the expansion and contraction of the various parts, in so far as they modify the movement of the index, is approximately zero, and consequently that no further corrections need be made. While such compensation is not complete, it is usually sufficient for any field work in which an aneroid is used.

In mercurial barometers, which are sometimes used at base stations, the changes due to the expansion or contraction of the mercury may be corrected by applying the following simple formula:

 $H = h'[1 + 0.00008967 (t_m - t_m')],$ in which

h' = the reading, either in in. or ft., at the upper station;

H = the height of the upper station corrected to the temperature of the lower station; and

 t_m' and t_m = the temperatures of the mercury at the upper and lower stations, respectively.

The temperature is determined by means of an attached thermometer.

Correction for Temperature of the Atmosphere.—Since the air pressure varies with the temperature as well as with the elevation, determinations of the latter by means of the aneroid are complicated by changes due to the former. To eliminate such errors, the difference in elevation between two points as determined by barometric readings is multiplied by a correction factor. Surveying aneroids are commonly calibrated for a temperature of 50° F. In such cases the factor is,

$$1 + \frac{T + t - 100}{1000}$$

in which T and t are the temperatures in Fahrenheit degrees at the two points. If the temperature is expressed in degrees centigrade, the factor becomes

$$1 + \frac{9(T+t) - 180}{5000}$$

Other aneroids are calibrated for a temperature of 32° F., and the corrections for Fahrenheit and centigrade readings would be,

$$1 + \frac{T + t - 64}{900}$$

and

$$1 + \frac{2(T+t)}{1000}$$

respectively. Thus if D is the true difference in altitude between two points, the observed elevations of which are H and h, then we have,

$$D = (H - h) \left(1 + \frac{T + t - 100}{1000}\right)$$
 (First case).

Example.—Assuming altitude readings of 1650 and 1275 ft. and temperatures of 90° and 95° for the two stations,

$$D = (1650 - 1275) \left(1 + \frac{90 + 95 - 100}{1000} \right)$$

= 375 × 1.085 = 407 ft.

Both temperature and pressure readings are taken at each station, and the correction is generally made by the application of the above formula which assumes that the average of the temperatures of the two stations at the time the observations were taken is the average temperature of the vertical air column between the two horizons determined by the stations, irrespective of the horizontal distance between them. Obviously aneroid observations are made under the worst possible conditions and the average value for two stations but poorly represents that of the air column in question.

It should also be carefully noted that according to the above formula the error due to temperature is not eliminated when the temperatures of the two stations are the same, but only when their mean temperature is equal to that for which the barometer is calibrated.

The difference in the reading of a barometer due to a given temperature change varies approximately as the altitude. Thus, for a change of 10°F. at an altitude of 100 ft., there is a change of about 2 ft.; for 1000 ft., 20 ft.; for 5000 ft., 102 ft.; for 10,000 ft., 204 ft.; etc. (See table VI, Appendix).

"For an error of 5°F. in the mean temperature of the level stratum of air between the two stations, the resulting error is approximately 1 per cent. of the difference of elevation. This error may, even under favorable conditions, be two or three times this amount, and under unfavorable conditions, five or six times as large."

The temperature of the air varies more rapidly than that of the barometer so that the two should be determined by independent thermometers.

Correction for Humidity of the Atmosphere.—It is said that the amount of vapor in the atmosphere in temperate climates near the sea level produces a pressure which is equivalent to about one one-hundredth of the total barometric pressure. A correction for this may be applied as a separate formula or as a modification of the temperature factor. In any case the correction is small, made with difficulty, and of somewhat doubtful practical value.

Correction for Latitude.—The latitude factor is $(1+0.00260 \cos 2\phi)$ and is due to the difference in the force of gravity at different latitudes. The correction is positive from 45° to the equator and negative from 45° to the poles. For a difference in elevation of 1000 ft., it varies from nothing at latitude 45° to 2.6 ft. at latitudes 0° and 90°, i.e., a maximum possible error of 0.00260 of the difference of elevation. No correction for this is necessary.

Correction for Altitude.—This factor is likewise very small and need not be considered in this work.

Summary.—The only corrections that need be considered are those due to changes in temperature, to diurnal changes, and to irregularities of the instrument. All of these corrections are commonly omitted, having previously been reduced to a minimum by the choice of method. If an error of approximately one one-thousandth (one-tenth of one per cent.) for each degree

¹ Baker, I. O., Engineer's surveying instruments, 1893.

Fahrenheit that the sum of the temperatures of the two stations exceeds 100° is permissible, the temperature need not be considered. Diurnal changes may be determined and the proper corrections made, but it is usually more expedient to avoid them. Instruments should be kept in such adjustment that errors in registering the pressure are too small to be considered.

HAND LEVEL

The hand level is commonly used to obtain the relative elevation of two points as a means of determining the general direction of dip of rock beds or topographic slopes. The two points may be alternately sighted on from a common point of view, but more often the instrument is held level with one point and sighted upon the other.

It is also used to determine the difference in elevation of points. This difference may be the interval between two strata both of which outcrop on a given hillside, or that between an outcrop which cannot be seen from the alidade and a point higher on the hillside which can be seen.

The first step is to determine the distance from the eye of the observer to the ground and to stand in such a manner while sighting that this distance is always the same. Then, standing on the lower point, or, if that is not possible on a point of equal or known relative elevation, the observer picks out by means of the hand level a recognizable point on the hillside, at the same elevation as his eye, preferably one near the shortest line joining the two points. He then walks to this point and repeats the operations until the desired point is sighted upon. The result is a number of intervals and a fraction such as 6 intervals less 3.5 ft., the feet being estimated. If the height of the observer's eye above the ground is 5.5 ft., the difference in elevation between the two points in this case is 29.5 ft. If the observations are carefully taken, and the horizontal distance is short, such determinations are sufficiently accurate for all elevations other than those in the main line of alidade traverse.

It is evident that while one can back down the slope until the eye is level with the higher point, mark the point on which he is then standing, then back farther down and sight on that point, it is much quicker to start at the lower point and work upward.

As commonly used for quick sights, hand levels are fairly accurate, but in long sights greater than a quarter of a mile, the non-telescopic varieties cannot be expected to have an accuracy greater than 1 in 250. This is due in a large part to the area covered by the cross-wire at such distance, as well as to the varying position of the eye (parallax), and to the lack of sensitiveness of the bubble. If the instrument is steadied by something other than the unsupported hand, somewhat greater accuracy may be obtained than is otherwise possible.

Not unfrequently the geologist finds it desirable to use a hand level for sights much longer than was intended by the manufacturer. To this end the level should contain a lens segment which permits the cross-wire to be always in focus, the level must be carefully adjusted, and the hole in the eye end should be small, not to exceed a millimeter in diameter. It is admitted that when, as in sighting a gun, the sight is at such distance that the outline of the circle can be seen, the eye locates the center of the opening with a considerable degree of accuracy, but when the opening is so close to the eye that its limits cannot be seen, the parallax that may result from the use of an eyepiece containing a hole 2 mm. in diameter (a common size) may be very great on long sights.

The use of a rod with the hand level is very unusual and quite unnecessary in general, but where an accurate determination is desired, the hand level can be used in the same manner as an engineer's level. The observer moves a short distance in the direction of the second point and backsights upon a rod held vertically upon the first point. This reading shows how much higher his eye is than the point on which the rod is held. The rod is then held on the second point or some convenient intermediate point, and a foresight taken. This reading shows how much lower this point is than the eye. Knowing the actual distance

each point is below the level of the eye of the observer, their relative elevation is quickly determined as the difference. The observer may now go beyond the second point sighted upon, take a backsight on it, then a foresight on a third point, and determine the elevation of the latter with respect to the first and second points. With this method the distance of the observer's eye to the ground is immaterial so long as it is the same for a given backsight and the corresponding foresight or sights.

In regard to the accuracy obtained by this method Keuffel & Esser state that "trials have shown that an accuracy of plus or minus 0.3 ft. in 100 ft. may be expected. This corresponds to about 1 to 2 ft. per mile." Such accuracy can be obtained only by very careful work with the use of a rod.

Telescopic varieties may be more accurate, as, when adjusted, they have no parallax, and the magnification by the eyepiece permits of the use of a smaller wire. Such instruments also have a greater variety of uses; i.e., in making the signals of the instrument man easily read, and in assisting in the recognition of formations and dips at greater distances than would otherwise be possible. That they are not in more common use is due in part to their cost and in part to the fact that in much of the work the benefit to be derived is not sufficient to offset the inconvenience of carrying them.

CLINOMETER

While the clinometer is usually used only to determine degree of slope, by applying its edge to a dipping layer of rock or by sighting along it up or down the dipping plane, the angle of inclination so determined may be used in computing differences of elevation, if the distance between the observer and the observed point is known. The method is a crude application of the vertical angle principle used with the telescopic alidade. It is most commonly employed in military sketching with the "slope board."

¹ This is based upon the law of errors as determined by C. F. Gauss, $\mu_s^2 = \eta \mu^2$. Personal communication from Keuffel & Esser Co.

ALIDADE

In areas of gentle folding where the average dip is 10 to 30 ft. per mile, where the location of terraces is important, and where "closure" or "reversal" of "structures" is commonly 20 or 30 ft., seldom exceeding 100 ft., such determinations of elevations as are necessary for careful detailed structural mapping are almost exclusively obtained by the combined use of the alidade, plane table, and stadia rod.

The importance of the alidade for such work decreases with steeper dips, with larger "structures," with obstructed view, and with lack of stratigraphic "markers" or strata that can be recognized from point to point.

Simple Leveling Method.—While it is not practicable to obtain all elevations by simple leveling methods, there are always some sights in which the middle wire of a horizontal telescope cuts the rod. Where possible the elevation of a point is always obtained in this way since it is simpler, quicker, and less subject to error than any of the other methods. In backsights the rod reading gives the elevation of the telescope above the point upon which the rod is held and the "height of instrument," or "H.I.," is obtained by adding this amount to the elevation of the point. In foresights, the rod reading is the distance the point is below the "H.I." and the elevation of the point is determined by subtracting this amount from the value of the latter.

Stepping or Intercept Method.—It is possible to obtain the difference in elevation between the alidade and a point on a rod in terms of the stadia intercept. In moving one stadia wire to the position formerly occupied by the other, the horizontal wire will have moved over the rod a distance equal to the stadia intercept for that distance from the instrument.

In Figs. 38 and 39, A, B, C, and D show four positions of the horizontal and the stadia wires, the former being represented by the letter b and the latter by a (upper wire) and c (lower wire). A, represents the position of the wires when the telescope is horizontal; B, their position when, by means of the tangent

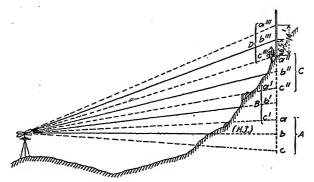


Fig. 38.—Determination of elevation by stepping method, side view.

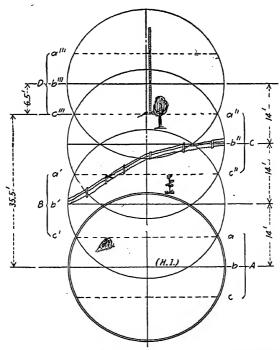


Fig. 39.—Determination of elevation by stepping method, end view. (Modified after Bausch & Lomb.)

screw, the line of sight has been elevated until the lower stadia wire, c, occupies the former position of the upper wire, a; C and D their positions after the operation has been twice repeated.

This is done by first carefully leveling the telescope and noting some recognizable point in the background cut by the upper stadia wire, shown as the top of a rock in the upper left hand quadrant of the lowest circle in Fig. 39. The line of sight is then turned up until the lower wire just cuts this point, c'. This is one step and the horizontal wire would intersect an extended rod at a distance equal to one stadia intercept above the height of instrument, "H. I." In a like manner a second step is taken by bringing the lower wire, c', to the position formerly occupied by the upper wire, a', the line being recognized by being at the top of a braced fence post and near the top of a certain weed. The horizontal wire would now intersect the rod, if sufficiently long, at a point twice the stadia intercept above the "H. I."

If, after three steps, position D, the horizontal wire intersects the rod at a point, b''', 6.5 ft. above the ground, and the stadia intercept is found to be 14 ft., it is seen that the point on the rod intersected by the horizontal wire is 42 ft. (3 \times 14 ft.) above the "H. I." of the alidade, and the point on which the rod rests is 6.5 ft. below this, or 35.5 ft. above the "H. I."

If the sight is one of depression in place of elevation, the procedure is the same except that the line of sight is stepped down and the rod reading is added to the product obtained by multiplying the stadia intercept by the number of steps.

TABLE SHOWING PERCENTAGE ERROR IN STEPPING METHOD

Number of steps	Angle	K × ⅓ sin 2v	Discrepancy	Error in per cent.
1	34' 23''	1.0001	0.0000	0.00
2	1° 8′ 46″	1.9998	0.0002	0.01
3	1° 43′ 09′′	2.9987	0.0013	0.04
4	2° 17′ 32″	3.9969	0.0031	0.08
5	2° 51′ 55″	4.9926	0.0074	0.15
6`	3° 26′ 18″	5.987	0.013	0.22
7	4° 00′ 41″	6.979	0.210	0.30
8	4° 35′ 04″	7.968	0.320	0.40

In determining elevation by means of the formula (number of steps) \times (stadia intercept) \pm (rod reading) = (difference in elevation), the stepping method is theoretically inaccurate because each step turns the line of sight through an angle the rod intercept of which differs from that of the preceding step. The accompanying table shows the theoretical error made by using the stepping method without corrections (p. 116).

The error for one, two, and three steps is too small to be considered; for four steps it is eight-hundredths of one per cent. A convenient rule and one which gives only a slight error for a small number of steps (the numbers most used) is to decrease the result by a number of hundredths of one per cent. of itself equal to the number of steps times the number of steps when diminished by two. Expressed in formula, Decrease expressed in per cent. =

$$\frac{\text{(number of steps)} \times \text{(number of steps} - 2)}{100}.$$
 For example, per cent. correction =
$$\frac{4 \text{ steps} \times (4 - 2)}{100} = 0.08.$$

Although theoretically inaccurate, as generally used for small angles this method gains in accuracy as compared with angular measurements because, as a rule, wire readings can be taken more accurately than the vertical arc or the Beaman stadia arc of small alidades can be read.

Computed Step Method.—The vertical angle having been determined and the stadia angle (34' 23") being known, the former may be divided by the latter to give the number of steps. The method avoids the necessity of having a good background but is otherwise subject to the same objections as the stepping method. The computations are as laborious as are those of the vertical angle method using a conversion table, and are not so accurate. They can, however, be made in cases in which the observer is not supplied with a table of stadia constants. This method should be used only as a temporary makeshift when another method is not available.

Vertical Arc Method.—As shown in the discussion of Fig. 36, the determination of distance by the use of the stadia intercept on a vertical rod is subject to two corrections; one because the

an intercept, and the other because the inclined and not the horizontal distance is obtained. As commonly used, the determination of elevation by the vertical arc involves the stadia intercept and is therefore subject to the same errors and corrections. To obtain the correct difference in elevation between the alidade and the point on the rod sighted upon when the angle is taken, the stadia intercept is multiplied by one-half the sine of twice the angle. To simplify the computation, conversion tables may be carried which give this function of angles. (For convenience, some tables give 100 times ½ sin 2v.) (See table III, Appendix.) Special slide rules, known as stadia slide rules, are also manufactured, based on this function.

Example 1.—Assuming a vertical angle of + 3° 23′, a rod reading of 10.0 ft., a stadia intercept of 12.5 ft., and a height of instrument (H.I.) of 1250.0 ft., we find the value of 100 times ½ sin 2v (See table III, Appendix) to be 5.86 and 5.92 where v is 3° 22′ and 3° 24′ respectively. Therefore, by interpolation, the value of this function of 3° 23′ is 5.89.

 $\frac{1}{2} \sin 2v = 5.89$ 12.5 ft. $\times 5.89 = 73.6$ ft. 73.6 ft. - 10.0 ft. = 63.6 ft., difference in elevation.

The above computation involves multiplication by a number consisting of three figures and the consequent loss of time and chances for error. Such computations interfere with the efficiency of the instrument man in that he cannot make the computations, check them, record the results on the map, and at the same time keep the rodman under constant observation and attend to his other duties. The instrument man therefore prefers to use more simple methods of computation and, where the vertical angle is much used, to employ a table which gives the computed results (See table III, Appendix).

Example 2.—Assume the vertical angle to be $+ 1^{\circ} 24'$, the rod reading 15.0 ft., the stadia intercept 14.3 ft., and the height of instrument 1325.4 ft.; the approximate inclined distance is

¹ For the mathematical demonstration of this, see pp. 91-93.

then 1430 ft. By reference to table III of the Appendix, under 1° 24' note that;

Difference in elevation for 1400 ft.	= +34.2 ft.
Difference in elevation for 30 ft.	· a
(value for 300 with point moved	
one place to left)	= + 0.7 ft.
Angular difference in elevation	= + 34.9 ft.
+ 34.9 ft. - 15.0 ft. (rod reading)	= + 19.9 ft.
Elevation = $1325.4 \text{ft.} + 19.9 \text{ft.}$	= 1345.3 ft.

The ordinary procedure in using the vertical arc is to sight the alidade on the rod, level the alidade, adjust the vernier to read zero angle, read the stadia intercept, sight the horizontal wire upon some convenient point on the rod, read it, "release" the rodman, read the vertical arc, and draw the line of bearing on the map.

This consumes an unnecessary amount of the rodman's time so that it is considered to be better to omit leveling the telescope and reading the vernier until later if the rodman is already on the point, or has been signaled "rod up."

The more rapid procedure then is; sight the alidade on the rod, read the stadia intercept, set the horizontal wire on some convenient point of the rod, read it, and "release" the rodman. While the rodman is going to the next station the vertical arc is read, the telescope leveled, the arc again read and the line of sight drawn on the table. The vertical angle is the difference in arc readings.

This makes a little more work for the instrument man but not infrequently results in the saving of time equal in value to the instrument man's wage.

If in taking a vertical angle reading the telescope is so set that the horizontal wire cuts the rod at a point equal to the height of the instrument above the ground, the line of sight is parallel to a line joining a point on the ground under the instrument with the point on which the rod is resting. The angular difference in elevation, the rod reading being omitted, gives the difference in elevation between these two points. Thus if the angle is always read with the horizontal wire cutting the rod at this point, the

rod reading need never enter into the computations of elevations. However, this method is not adapted to petroleum geology work because the rod cannot always be read at any desired point.

Beaman Stadia Arc Method.—The value of the angle as read in Beaman stadia arc divisions times the stadia intercept, which must also be obtained, is the correct difference in elevation between the alidade (H. I.) and the point on the rod cut by the horizontal cross-wire. It is usually desired to find the difference in elevation between the alidade and the point on which the rod is placed, in which case the value obtained above is diminished by the rod reading (point cut by the middle horizontal wire when reading the angle) if the line of sight is above the horizontal and increased by this amount if below it.

(Difference in elevation) = (number of divisions) \times (stadia intercept) \pm (rod reading).

There are no fractional readings on the Beaman stadia are and it may therefore happen that, because of distance or partly obscured view, when the are reads a full division the horizontal wire will not fall upon the rod. If either of the stadia wires intersects it, the reading of the horizontal wire can be computed by subtracting a half-stadia reading from the reading of the top wire or adding it to that of the lower wire. When no wire falls upon the rod, another method must be used.

The procedure with the Beaman stadia arc is as follows: the telescope is sighted upon the rod for direction, leveled, the index adjusted to read 50 (zero point), the line of sight turned up or down (as the case may be) until the horizontal wire approximately bisects the rod, the line of sight is then further moved until the index coincides with the nearest full division on the Beaman arc, the arc is read, the rod is read, the stadia intercept is taken, the rodman "released," and the line of bearing drawn on the map.

Any observation which includes a stadia reading is computed from the anterior focal point of the telescope and where great accuracy is desired the proper value for the instrument constant (c+f) must be computed and added. (See pp. 91–93.) This is seldom necessary in geologic work.

Example 1.—Assuming the stadia intercept to be 14.5 ft., the reading of the V-scale to be 40, that of the H-scale to be approximately 1, and the intersection of the rod by the horizontal cross-wire to be 10.5 ft. above the ground, then

$$40 - 50 = -10$$
, value of angle in Beaman stadia arc divisions;

$$-10 \times 14.5$$
 ft. = -145.0 ft.,

which is the difference in elevation between the instrument and the point on the rod. The negative sign indicating that the line of sight is below the horizontal, there results

$$-145.0 \text{ ft.} + (-10.5 \text{ ft.}) = -155.5 \text{ ft.},$$

which is the difference in elevation between the instrument and the station on which the rod is held.

Correcting for the true horizontal distance,

14.5 ft. × 100 (stadia constant) = 1450 ft. the approximate inclined distance, then

1 per cent. of 1450 ft. = 14.5 ft., and

1450 ft. - 14.5 ft. = 1435.5 ft., the true horizontal distance.

Example 2.—Assuming the stadia interval to be 9.5 ft., the Beaman stadia are reading 60, the horizontal correction reading 1, the rod reading 5.7 ft., and not correcting for horizontal distance, then

60 - 50 = +10, value of angle in Beaman stadia are divisions;

+ 10 \times 9.5 ft. = + 95 ft., difference in elevation between instrument and point on rod;

+ 95 ft. - 5.7 ft. = + 89.3 ft., the elevation of the station above the instrument.

¹ A horizontal correction is made only in case the amount is such as to show readily when plotted according to the scale used in mapping. That is, when mapping on a scale of 1000 ft. to the inch, one would not correct for less than 20 ft.

Example 3.—Assuming the half-stadia interval to be 14.5 ft., the Beaman stadia are reading to be 52, and that only the top stadia wire cuts the rod where it can be read, the reading being 7.3 ft., then

14.5 ft. × 2 = 29.0 ft., stadia intercept;
29.0 ft. × 100 = 2900 ft., approximate inclined distance;
7.3 ft. - 14.5 ft. = -7.2 ft., horizontal wire reading;
52 - 50 = +2, value of angle in Beaman stadia arc divisions;
+2 × 29.0 ft. = +58.0 ft., difference in elevation between instrument and point on rod;
+58.0 ft. - (-7.2 ft.) = +65.2 ft., elevation of station above instrument.

Gradienter Screw Method.—In determining elevation by means of the gradienter screw the vertical angle is measured in terms of drum (gradienter screw head) rotations, each of which is equal to one hundred times the tangent of the angle. The difference in the elevation of the instrument and that of the point on the rod cut by the horizontal wire is the product of the horizontal distance and the tangent of the angle, or the stadia intercept and the number of drum rotations. The difference in elevation between the instrument and the point on which the rod rests, is the above product increased or diminished (depending upon whether the sight is one of depression or elevation) by the rod reading.

Difference in elevation

- = (horizontal distance) \times (tangent of angle) \pm (rod reading)
- = (stadia intercept) \times (number of drum revolutions) \pm (rod reading).

In turning the gradienter screw for an angle reading, it may happen that after one or more complete revolutions the horizontal wire or a stadia wire may still not have cut any visible part of the rod, while another complete revolution will have carried the wires entirely past it. In such cases, a fractional part of a revolution is used. Obviously, the longer the rod, and the closer it is to the observer, the less probability will there be of such a necessity.

The use of full revolutions greatly facilitates the work as it is then only necessary to multiply the stadia intercept by a simple whole number such as 2, 3, etc., an operation which can be carried on mentally.

The general relations of distance to elevation involve the trigonometric functions of a right triangle of which the horizontal distance is the base, the difference in elevation between the alidade and the point on the rod cut by the horizontal wire the perpendicular, and the inclined distance the hypotenuse. The base (correct horizontal distance) times the tangent of the angle (number of drum divisions) gives the value of the perpendicular. The hypotenuse (correct inclined distance) times the sine of the angle also gives the perpendicular. The determination of distance as one hundred times the stadia intercept on a vertical rod gives neither of these but the approximate inclined distance and, as shown in the discussion of Fig. 36, should be multiplied by one-half the sine of twice the angle to obtain the true value of the perpendicular. However, the error involved by the use of the tangent in place of the above function is, for angles up to 10 revolutions or about 6°, much smaller than is commonly believed. The amount is shown by the accompanying table (p. 124).

A very close correction can be made by decreasing the angular difference in elevation by a number of hundredths of one per cent. equal to the square of the number of revolutions of the drum.

In comparing the accuracy of the gradienter screw with that of the vertical arc one should remember that the latter can be read with difficulty to the nearest minute, equivalent to 0.3 ft. in 1000 ft., while the former is easily read to one one-hundredth of a revolution, equivalent to 0.1 ft. in 1000 ft., i.e. the error in reading the vertical arc is about three times that in reading the gradienter screw.

Number of revolu- tions of gradienter screw	Value of angle	$K imes (lac{1}{2} \sin 2v)$	Error in per cent.
1	34′ 23″	1.0000	0.000
2	1° 8′ 46″	1.9997	0.013
3	1° 43′ 6″	2.9974	0.086
4	2° 17′ 27′′	3.9941	0.149
5	2° 51′ 46′′	4.9882	0.235
6	3° 26′ 2′′	5.9790	0.351
7	· 4° 00′ 14′′	6.9653	0.497
8	4° 34′ 26″	7.9491	0.637

ERROR CAUSED BY USING GRADIENTER SCREW WITH STADIA INTERCEPT

When properly constructed and in good working order, gradienter screws are sufficiently accurate for petroleum geology for the reading of all angles up to 7 or 8 revolutions, and furnish a very rapid means of determining elevation. It is recommended that they be used for nearly all small angle determinations.

Example 1.—Assuming that the stadia intercept is 13.2 ft., that the angle is 3 upward-revolutions of the drum (gradienter screw), and that the rod reading is 6.3 ft., then

$$13.2 \text{ ft.} \times 3 = 39.6 \text{ ft.}$$

39.6 ft. $-6.3 \text{ ft.} = 33.3 \text{ ft.}$, difference in elevation.

Example 2.—Assuming that the stadia intercept is 10.5 ft., that the reading of the drum with the telescope in a horizontal position is 96, and that the reading of the drum when the line of sight has been turned down until the horizontal wire cuts the 10-ft. point on the rod is 61, then

96 - 61 = 35 divisions = 35/100ths of one drum rotation (stadia intercept)

$$35/100$$
ths of 10.5 ft. = 3.7 ft.
3.7 ft. + 10 ft. = 13.7 ft., difference in elevation.

Stadia Wire Method.—In oil geology it is desired that the instrument work be carried on as rapidly as is consistent with the accuracy requirements. Permissible short cuts should always

be used. Among these is the reading of the rod intersection of one of the stadia wires when the horizontal wire cannot advantageously be made to intersect the rod. This can at times be conveniently used with all methods of determining elevation by the alidade except with the vertical arc, it being, in that case, always as easy and as rapid to set the middle wire at any desirable point as it is to set one of the stadia wires.

Since alidade observations consist of the determination of both distance and elevation, the former is always available in computing the latter. The distance, however determined, when divided by 100 (stadia constant) gives the stadia intercept, or the distance between the points on the rod cut by the stadia wires. From this it follows that the stadia wires cut the rod at a known distance (half-stadia intercept) from the point cut by the horizontal wire and that, conversely, the point cut by the horizontal wire is a half-stadia intercept above or below the point cut by the lower and upper wires respectively.

In the simple leveling, the stepping, the Beaman stadia arc, and the gradienter screw methods, the vertical angle has in general been laid off and determined before it is known whether or not the horizontal wire will intersect the rod. If it does not do so, but one of the stadia wires does, the reading of the intersection of the latter saves the time necessary to lay off a new known angle.

In using the stepping method a half-step interval gives no rod intersections that cannot be obtained by a full step, the lower or the upper wire simply being moved to the position formerly occupied by the horizontal wire. If, with one step upward the upper wire reads 3 ft. on the rod, one may record + 1 in the "V. A." column of the notes and U3 in the "Rod" column, or 1½ in the "V.A." and 3 in the "Rod" columns respectively. The first is preferred.

The Beaman stadia arc has no fractional divisions. It is much quicker to take a stadia wire reading than it is to make a new setting of this arc. Furthermore, at distances greater than 100 times the visible portion of the rod, it may be impossible to make

the horizontal wire intersect the rod when the arc reads a full division. It follows, that if, after the angle has been laid off the horizontal wire does not cut the visible portion of the rod but one of the stadia wires does, its reading should be taken and the reading of the horizontal wire computed.

In using the gradienter screw there is less choice between taking a stadia wire reading or another full rotation as the latter requires very little additional time. It is quicker to take a stadia wire reading than it is to lay off a decimal drum reading, but when using the latter, it is best always to use the horizontal wire.

In all of the instances given, the computation of elevation differs in no way from that used when the reading of the horizontal wire is known, except that the position of the latter must be first computed from the position of a stadia wire, and, furthermore, the computed intersection may in some cases be below the point on which the rod is held, so that it is necessary to consider carefully whether its value is to be added to or subtracted from the angular difference of elevation.

Example 1.—If, with the telescope level, the lower stadia wire cuts the rod at 14.5 ft., the stadia intercept is 14.6 ft., and the height of the instrument is 1462.3 ft., then

one-half stadia intercept = 7.3 ft.

14.5 ft. + 7.3 ft. = 21.8 ft., rod reading for the horizontal wire.

1462.3 ft. - 21.8 ft. = 1440.5 ft., elevation of point.

Example 2.—If, after the line of sight has been turned upward 2 steps, the upper stadia wire reads 2.5 ft. (backsight), the stadia intercept is 11.2 ft., and the elevation of the point is 1227.0 ft., then

one-half stadia intercept = 5.6 ft.

2.5 ft. -5.6 ft. =-3.1 ft., rod reading for the horizontal wire.

 $(+2) \times 11.2$ ft. = +22.4 ft., angular difference in elevation.

+22.4 ft. -(-3.1 ft.) = +25.5 ft., difference in elevation. 1227.0 ft. -25.5 ft. = 1201.5 ft., height of instrument.

This computation may also be made by considering this angle to be $+2\frac{1}{2}$ steps, and the horizontal wire reading 2.5 ft., whereby we have,

 $(+2\frac{1}{2}) \times 11.2$ ft. = +28.0 ft., angular difference in elevation. 28.0 ft. -2.5 = 25.5 ft. difference in elevation.

Intersection and Vertical Angle Method.—Points may be located by the intersection method and their elevation determined by the use of the distances scaled from the map and the vertical angles as determined from one or both of the points from which the intersecting lines of sight were taken. Either the vertical angle or the gradienter screw method may be used, the computations differing from those already outlined only in that there is no rod reading (the horizontal wire being sighted directly upon the point) and the scaled distance is the correct horizontal distance, and not the approximate inclined distance as obtained by the use of the stadia intercept. The use of the tangent screw is therefore theoretically correct, and the tangent of the vertical angle should be used in place of the function, ½ sin 2v.

Difference in elevation = scaled distance × number of drum divisions

= scaled distance \times tan v.

The method is used both for the determination of the elevation of conspicuous points which need not be visited by the rodman, and for the determination or checking of the elevation of the alidade. It is of considerable value in both topographic and structural mapping.

There are many instances in the western states where the contact being mapped can be clearly seen for long distances. There are, therefore, many cases in which valuable time may be saved by the use of this method.

It not infrequently happens that there is within an area being mapped a prominent object such as a house, windmill, or silo, which can be seen from many points. If this is located, by triangulation or otherwise, and the elevation of the top, or other prominent point, determined, the instrument man may, at any time it is visible, take an angle reading on it, scale the distance, and determine the relative elevation of it and the alidade, thus securing a check on his work.

Backsight Method.—It is possible and sometimes practicable to determine elevation by erecting a pole or flag of known position and elevation and backsighting upon it. If a graduated pole is used, the distance, if not too great, can be determined by a constant angle method, otherwise one of constant intercept must be used, i.e., the height from the ground to the top of the pole or flag being known, the distance is computed by means of the angle which that height subtends at the instrument. If poles or flags are set at various section corners, elevation may be carried from point to point. The method can be used only in open country and is slow, as the plane table must be set up at the point of each observation. Its chief advantage is that it requires no rodman.

CHAPTER III

IDENTIFICATION OF STRUCTURE

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

Although a study of subsurface conditions, including water, number and character of sands, continuity of sands, the making of sand maps, and the like, are matters for the consideration of the professional oil geologist, they are determined chiefly in the office by a careful examination of the available well data, and are consequently not within the province of this work.

The field work of a petroleum geologist is confined largely, and in wild cat territory, almost wholly, to the working out of structural conditions of folding and faulting; in other words it is made up largely of a search for anticlines and terraces, and of the mapping of such areas.

An anticline may be defined as an arch in the rocks; as a structurally high point from which the rocks slope downward in opposite directions (Figs. 1 and 2). This slope may be, and frequently is, quite independent of the surface or topographic slope, so that an anticline may coincide with a valley or with a hill, and while a hill may be anticline, much more often it is not. In oil work, it is of the utmost importance to bear in mind that it is the dip of the buried rock beds that is to be determined, not the slope of the topographic surface, and that this information is furnished chiefly by the outcropping beds.

Some anticlines are completely closed, that is, the rocks dip outward in all directions from a structurally high point. In others, the dips are outward in only three, or even in only two directions. In the case of terraces (Fig. 6), the rocks have a dip in only one direction, but are much more nearly flat in certain places than in adjacent areas up and down the dip. In still other places the rock beds may be not only bent but actually

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broken or dislocated in such a way that the broken ends of the same bed no longer meet. This constitutes a fault (Figs. 7–13). It is these conditions of direction and amount of dip and continuity of the rock beds that the field man in petroleum geology is concerned with and tries to indicate on his maps.

Where rock exposures are good and dips moderately steep, the recognition of an anticline in the field is a matter of compara-

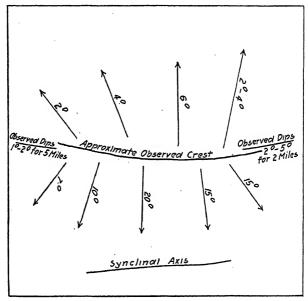


Fig. 40.—Type of reconnaissance map in areas where pronounced dips are the rule.

tive ease, requiring but little training or experience. These cases, however, are the exception. Much more commonly the rock beds are poorly exposed or the dips are very low, or both; in which case it is only the trained observer who will note the changes in dip and then, perhaps, only after very close examination accompanied by instrument work.

Usually an anticline is so large or so placed that not all parts

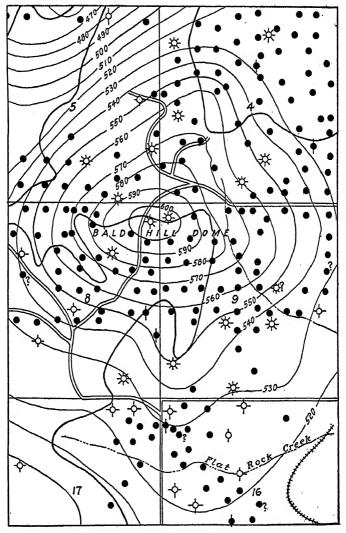


Fig. 41.—Structure contour map of Bald Hill Dome, Osage County, Oklahoma ($U.\ S.\ Geol.\ Survey.$)

of it can be seen at once. Observations of dip may then be plotted on a map as taken, the changes and relations of dip being more easily seen when thus assembled. The recording of the observations may be done in several ways. Where dips are sufficiently steep so that they are evident to the observer, arrows may be drawn in the proper position on the map showing the direction and approximate rate of dip as noted. (See Fig. 40). This is the method employed in much reconnaissance or geologic scouting work.

Where a detailed instrument survey is made, it is customary to take elevations at numerous points on outcropping beds, and to prepare a structural contour map. This consists of drawing lines through points of equal elevation on a given bed at constant intervals. The vertical distance represented between successive lines may be 5, 10, 20, 25, 50, 100, or more feet. Such lines are called structural contours, or isobaths, and the vertical distance between successive lines is known as the contour interval. Structural contour lines represent the surface of a given bed only; they delineate its form and indicate the size and shape of any fold present (Fig. 41). It is to be noted that these contours bear no necessary relation whatever to the topographic contours, which represent the surface of the ground.

IDENTIFICATION OF STRATA

Identification of strata, or stratigraphic correlation, presents many important and often perplexing problems. In so far as oil work is concerned, such correlations may be divided into three main aspects. The first and quite probably the one of least importance, is the determination of the geologic age, or the period and epoch to which a formation belongs; the second, the determination of the character and thickness of the underlying formations; and the third, the correlation, or the determination of the equivalency or non-equivalency of beds seen in separated areas, without reference to their geologic age.

Information concerning all of these can often be secured from geologic reports published by organizations such as the United

States Geological Survey, State geological surveys, and technical societies. But the geologist may sometimes be called upon to investigate and to render an opinion as to the probability of finding oil and gas in commercial quantities in some area such as parts of Wyoming, Utah, Arizona, or New Mexico, the general geology of which has as yet been but poorly worked out. To do this correctly, he must determine the geologic age of the surface formations and the general character and thickness of the underlying beds, and must map such structural features as are present, a work which will almost invariable involve the correlation of strata.

The geologic age of a formation may usually be determined from the character of the contained fossils, by a comparison of its fossils and lithologic characteristics with those of nearby formations of known age, or by actually tracing it into a formation the age of which is known. Some formations contain such peculiarly characteristic fossils that their identification is quite easy and positive, but more commonly such an identification will involve the collection of fossils by the oil geologist with the purpose of submitting them to a paleontologist for determination, many geologists not being sufficiently familiar with the highly specialized field of paleontology to make their own determinations.

Determination of age by means of lithologic resemblance is usually unsafe, as strata of widely differing age not uncommonly so closely resemble each other as not to be distinguishable. Yet there are formations which have such peculiar lithologic characteristics that correlation thereby for short distances is reasonably safe.

Not infrequently in deeply dissected or highly folded regions the approximate thickness and character of many of the underlying formations can be obtained from exposures in adjacent areas. Logs of deep wells, where available, are a valuable source of such information.

Much more commonly, however, an oil geologist is not so much concerned with determining the actual age of the surface rocks and the character of the underlying formations, a knowledge of these facts being already in his possession, as he is with the question of whether or not a bed on one side of a hill is the continuation of a similar-appearing bed on the other side. Inasmuch as structural maps are intended to represent the shape of the surface of a given stratum, it is obvious that in so far as this is determined by taking elevations from point to point, one must be absolutely sure that the points determined are on the same stratum or on one the stratigraphic relation of which to the former is known. There are instances in which a positive determination is impossible, but there are also many cases of incorrect correlation, even in the presence of abundant evidence. Errors in this respect have not uncommonly led to serious blunders in locating anticlines, not only by beginners but also by men of considerable experience.

There is no matter more fundamental in the mapping of structure, than correct identification of strata. Not only should the geologist be sure of his correlation, but in taking elevations care must be used to make certain that they are all taken on the same horizon of the stratum, preferably the top of a resistant member, since that is the plane most easily recognized, the base usually being buried beneath talus and soil. If a stratum is 20 or 30 ft. thick, very considerable error may be introduced by securing some elevations on its upper surface and others near its base. The top of a stratum is, of course, not the eroded surface, but the contact between it and the next overlying bed. Likewise observations taken above or along an unconformable contact may be entirely invalidated by erosion inequalities.

There are a number of significant facts that may be observed in the field to aid in correlation of beds. First and most important is the actual tracing of the formation from the one outcrop to the other. "Walk the outcrop" is advice that cannot be emphasized too strongly, especially for the beginner. This is advice of particular importance in detailing, where contour maps are to be made.

The walking of an outcrop is by no means a simple matter for in many cases it is more or less buried beneath a covering of soil that renders its tracing difficult. In following a well-defined ledge that outcrops conspicuously, one not uncommonly finds that it apparently ends abruptly, and careful search fails to find it beyond the point of disappearance. Sometimes this is the result of faulting but in most cases it is not. The more conspicuous the ledge has been and the more abruptly it ends. the stronger the presumption of faulting. Such a supposition is still further strengthened by finding that the same ledge also ends abruptly on the other side of the adjacent valley, as is often One should be cautious, however, in assuming faulting on unsupported evidence of this kind, since the stratum may "pinch out," or since changes in the thickness of the formation. in the degree of its resistance to weathering, in the steepness of the slope on which it occurs, or in the degree of exposure to sun. rain, and wind, may cause the outcrop to be buried for long distances.

Often where the ledge is not too deeply buried, the upper limit of "float" (fragments of the rock in the soil) may be followed in a definite line which indicates the position of the formation, but where a second, similar stratum occurs but little farther up the hill, the fragments from the upper outcrop may mingle with those from the lower, and make the tracing uncertain.

The character of the soil may also be of much help in tracing a buried formation. Soils from limestones, sandstones and shales are often quite distinct. One should study the soil conditions at points where the formations are well exposed, in order to learn the sort of soil yielded by each bed. The soil from very thin beds may be entirely masked by slump from the soils of thicker overlying beds, especially on steep slopes. Even where the physical characters of the soils are so similar as not to be easily distinguished, beds can sometimes be traced by the nature of the vegetation that grows on them. Even across cultivated fields, where there are no visible outcrops, and where few rock fragments can be noted, the trace of a formation can often be followed by differences in plant growth, sometimes by more abundant weed patches, sometimes by a scarcity of vegetation.

In sandstone areas traces of thin limestone beds can sometimes be followed for a long ways across fields by a peculiar and more luxuriant weed growth.

Where it is practicable to do so, it is often wise to "walk out" the outcrop of two successive limestones, checking the interval between them frequently for if the thicknesses and intervals of a series of several beds have been determined in two places, the fact of similarity of them all in similar order of succession, greatly strengthens the safety of the correlation. This is particularly to be recommended if one or the other of the beds outcrops poorly and is difficult to trace.

Where it is not possible, or is impracticable, to actually trace out the outcrop, other and less certain methods of correlation must be employed. One of the most commonly used is similarity of lithologic character. This must be employed with great caution in most cases. Marked peculiarities of the formation, such as the presence of chert nodules in abundance, fossils, oolitic character of the beds, black carbonaceous shale layers, coal seams, peculiar and unusual jointing in the formation. unusual color, and many other similar features, may be of great help. It must be remembered, however, that similar conditions of sedimentation produce similar beds, even at widely separated time intervals, and not infrequently an observer has correlated two outcrops on the basis of some peculiarity only to find soon after that some other bed above or below has the same peculiar features. Of course the greater the number of such features noted as being identical in two separate exposures the greater the degree of certainty in correlation.

While fossils may also be used for correlating beds, the average man in the field is not familiar enough with paleontology to name them scientifically, to distinguish between similar species, or to recognize their stratigraphic range, but merely uses the plant or animal remains as he might any lithologic character in comparing the beds. Even with the use of fossils it must be borne in mind that in a comparatively thin rock series containing several limestone beds separated by sandstones or shales, the fossil

As previously suggested, elevations should be taken on the top of the stratum being traced, but in cases in which the bed is not actually exposed, this is approximately accomplished by using the highest fragments of "float." It is obvious that fragments are not above their source, except possibly in a glaciated region, and that where they are fairly abundant an elevation taken at their upper limit will probably be near the top of the formation from which they come; at least such an elevation when used with judgment may be of greater value than no elevation at all.

The contact may also be marked by a bench, where the softer overlying formation is worn back, and this bench is often visible, even where no rock outcrops. Care must be taken, however, not to confuse the top bench with minor local benches caused by soft local layers of shale or sand at varying horizons in the formation.

AVERAGE DIP AND METHOD OF DETERMINING SAME

Bedding planes are always more or less uneven, especially in the shallow water sediments which constitute the exposed formations of many of the petroleum districts. Clinometers are, therefore, seldom correctly used as contact instruments in dip determinations for in many cases such irregularities of bedding exceed the average angle of dip. In using a clinometer one may so stand or sit that his eye is on a level with the bed the dip of which is to be determined, and by sighting upon this bed at some distant point, determine the component of its dip in this direction. Where the line of outcrop is nearly normal to the line of sight from the observer, the straight-edge of the clinometer is held normal to the line of sight and approximately parallel to the line of outcrop. The lower the angle of dip and the more irregular the bedding, the longer should the line of outcrop sighted upon be, if the average dip is to be obtained. The clinometer is therefore held at such a distance from the eye that each end of its straight-edge is in the line of sight from the eve to one end of the visible portion of the observed line of outcrop.

These are the general methods of using the clinometr, ir-

respective of the angle of dip, and are used to advantage in either close or distant observations. They give only the component of dip in the direction observed, and not necessarily the true angle of dip. This is usually obtained with sufficient accuracy by interpolating between observations taken in directions normal to each other.

The value of angles of dip may also be determined by securing the relative elevation of a number of points on a given bed by means of a hand level, barometer, or alidade. Angles of half a degree or more can often be recognized by the unaided eye with sufficient accuracy for reconnaissance work.

VISIBILITY OF DIP

The angle of dip necessary that it may be recognized by the unaided eye depends upon the evenness of the bedding planes, the length of the outcrop, the adjacent topographic slopes, and the experience of the observer. Commonly, experienced geologists are able to recognize the direction of dip in slopes of one-third of a degree (30 ft. to the mile), even in comparatively short exposures of fairly well bedded formations. While the visibility of low dips is largely a matter of practice, it is often dependent upon the observer's ability to pick out the most reliable surface and to know just how reliable it is. Such ability is of maximum importance in sandstone areas where the beds are markedly irregular and cross-bedded.

The clinometer is used to aid the eye and to measure the amount of dips. By this means slightly smaller angles of dip can be determined than by the unaided eye and the determinations, in so far as the angular measurement is concerned, is definite. The accuracy of the unaided eye varies from day to day and is considerably influenced by the adjacent topographic slopes.

APPARENT DIP

In order to see the true dip in a distant exposed ledge, the line of sight must be practically parallel to the strike and the ledge must be exposed in the direction of true dip, *i.e.*, at right angles to the line of sight. The edge of a steeply dipping bed, if seen in the line of strike only will appear to be absolutely flat.

Further than this, and more likely to cause errors of interpretation, is the fact that if the distant outcrop, which seems to be at right angles to the line of sight, be in reality oblique to it, a single component of the dip may be mistaken for the true dip. As an example, a north-east component of a true north dip might be, and frequently is, mistaken for an east dip. This is a common source of error on the part of beginners in reconnaissance work and should be carefully guarded against.

REGIONAL DIP

Over large areas of country, particularly on the flanks of important geologic uplifts, there is usually a low but dominant inclination of the beds in one direction for long distances, subject of course to minor variations both in direction and amount. This is known as regional dip. In the Kansas and Oklahoma portions of the Mid-Continent Field, the regional dip averages from 20 to 40 ft. to the mile in a general direction slightly north of west and is a result of the Ozark uplift. In eastern Colorado and western Nebraska, the regional dip is to the east, a condition caused by the Rocky Mountain uplift. About the Cincinnati Arch there is a general radial regional dip, outward in all directions from the structural center of the uplift.

One of the first things a man going into an unfamiliar field should do is to acquaint himself with the general direction and approximate amount of the regional dip. This he may do from maps, from reports, or by observation.

In a locality of west regional dip, any local area of east dip determines an anticline. Consequently in the Mid-Continent Field one hears much of "easts" or of "reversals." Any sudden change in the direction, or in the amount of dip, even though not constituting a reversal should be noted, as it may mark a terrace of importance.

AIDS IN RECOGNIZING STRUCTURE

Abnormal Regional Dip.—Oil fields are generally areas of well-defined regional dips, many of them doubtless owing their existence to this fact. Any further folding of such an area tends to increase the dip locally by the amount of that uplift. In general then, an increase in the angle of inclination of the beds beyond the regional normal probably means the near presence of either a reversal in the direction of dip, or a flattening of the angle of inclination, usually somewhere up the dip. Therefore a dip steeper than the normal, even though in the regional direction, suggests deformation and the probable presence of a possible oil structure.

In some cases an exceptionally steep dip may lead to a fault, in others, especially in Osage County, Oklahoma, where the regional dip is west by north a steep dip in the regional direction may occur just east of a syncline or structural depression without having east of it, in turn, a reversal or a decrease in the angle of the dip to less than the regional average. Here the corresponding anticline may be found directly to the west of the syncline, conditions being such as would result if the deformation had been caused by a sinking of the synclinal area rather than by the elevation of the anticline or dome.

Abnormal regional dip is an important criterion and its use has lead to the discovery of many structures. Changes in the amount and direction of inclination of the beds should always be investigated both up and down the dip if necessary, although the former is generally the more promising direction. Areas of abnormal regional dips are more promising and worthy of careful examination than those in which a preliminary reconnaissance shows only monotonous uniformity of dip.

Wavy Conditions.—In places one sometimes notes a wavy or rolling condition of the strata; a tendency for troughs to occur under the small valleys. Such a condition suggests local deformation and the possible presence of structural conditions worthy of investigation.

Fracturing.—Folding is instrumental in the formation of joints and small breaks or faults of a few inches or feet displacement. Other things being equal, the amount of fracturing should be greater where folding has taken place. Excessive jointing in limestone in the vicinity of folds is quite noticeable in some areas and "breaks" or small faults in limestone and sandstone are also often found. Such conditions are relative, but may indicate deformation and therefore suggest the possibility of favorable structural conditions.

Where, then, there is a minor wavy condition of the strata, or an abnormal condition of fracture, one should be particularly on

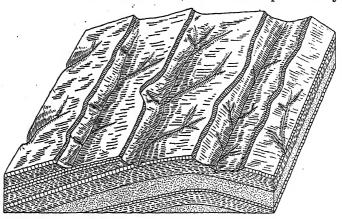
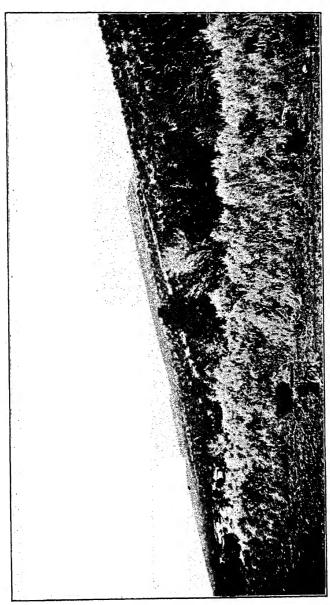


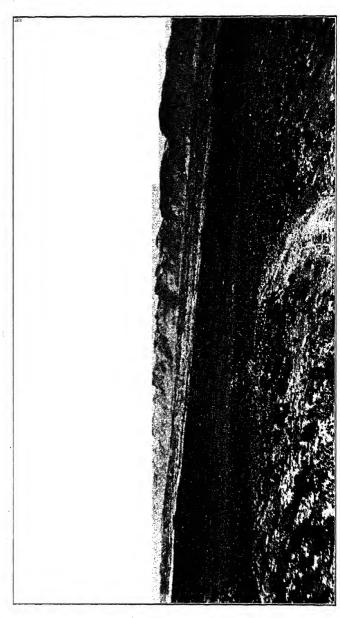
Fig. 42.—Block diagram showing relation of topographic features to dip of rock beds.

the watch, to learn the exact structural features responsible therefor.

Lines of Folding.—In many regions the folding seems to follow definite lines, in fact, this seems to be rather the rule in most areas. Not uncommonly, also, folds and faults are arranged en echelon, that is, in overlapping series, in such wise that the end of each overlaps slightly past the next. Consequently, areas in the direction of the regional strike from known structures are believed to be more favorable than others.



Dip slope on surface of Pennsylvanian limestone, Big Indian structure, San Juan County, Utah.



Comb Ridge, an escarpment of La Plata (Jurassic) sandstone, on east flank of San Juan anticline, Utah.

Dip Slopes.—Dip slopes (Figs. 42 and 43, and Pl. IX) are those topographic slopes which parallel the inclined bedding of the rocks below. They are therefore a direct and often sufficiently accurate representation of the dip and strike of the underlying beds for the work at hand and one which can often be seen for long distances. Such slopes may or may not be present in a

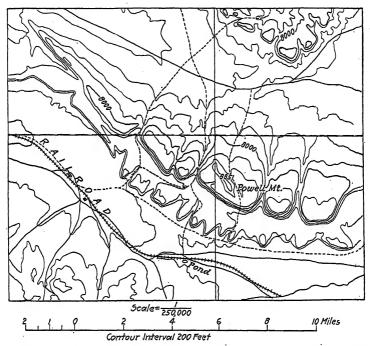


Fig. 43.—Topographic map showing cuesta with dip and escarpment slopes (Wingate sheet, New Mexico, U. S. Geol. Survey.)

given area and their value to the geologist increases with the lack of other determinative criteria and with the degree of certainty with which they can be recognized as such.

Thinly bedded, resistant formations, especially when made up of alternate layers of hard and soft materials, are best adapted to produce this feature. As degradation progresses the hills and the valleys descend obliquely and retain the same relation to the beds. Where the dip of the strata is low, each of the more resistant beds tends to become the cap of a sloping plane (Figs. 42 and 43, and Pl. IX). The upper surface of a slightly inclined resistant stratum may be thus completely exposed and a dip slope formed. The erosion of limestone under these conditions will almost invariably result in the formation of dip slopes at the more favorable points, while the erosion of shale will almost never do so; or where such a relation does occur, it is accidental.

The profile of a hillside which has resulted from erosion of approximately homogeneous material has in general the shape of an inclined S, or better that portion of a sine curve which lies between an adjacent crest and trough. Starting at the nearly level hill top the slope gradually increases to a maximum midway down the hill and from there gradually decreases to zero in the The eye of a trained observer becomes so accustomed to natural erosion features that deviations such as the nearly straight, though perhaps broken or interrupted profile of a dip slope (Figs. 42 and 43, and Pl. IX) are quickly noticed. This is the most important criterion for its recognition. It is apparent both in distant and in close observations and is of assistance in reconnaissance and detailed work. Such slopes are further characterized by the absence of seepages, by a scarcity of vegetation, by the relative readiness with which the vegetation burns out under the summer sun, and by the presence of thinly bedded pieces of float similar to the beds immediately below. Each of these characteristics may occur in all degrees of perfection and in some cases their combined evidence may only be sufficient to suggest but not to prove the presence of a dip slope. Here experience, and especially experience with development of dip slopes on the particular formations in question, is of great value. Under such conditions confirmatory evidence is carefully sought. This confirmation may consist of a graceful bending of the topographic contours such as to suggest the change in direction of dip of the beds around a structure rather than the

irregularities of erosion, or it may consist of actually observed rock dips.

It may then be repeated that long, abnormally straight, and slightly sloping topographic profiles, when seen at a distance, should at once arouse the attention, and where the inclination is not in the direction of the regional dip, should invite further investigation.

Inasmuch as the rate of erosion increases with the topographic slope, and since lateral wear is most important when the erosion is slow, it follows that erosion features are, as a rule, more representative of the structural conditions in areas of gentle topography than in rougher areas.

Erosion Escarpments.—The erosion of inclined or tilted strata gives rise to topographic forms which are characterized by their lack of symmetry. Where, as is generally the case, hard and soft strata alternate, the latter are rapidly eroded. On encountering a more resistant layer a stream not flowing in the direction of the dip is deflected against the side towards which the rocks dip. This causes the rapid erosion of the less resistant material and the sapping or caving of the more resistant beds forming steep, cliff-like forms known as erosion escarpments (Figs. 42 and 43, and Pl. X). On the other hillside such forms are absent and the contour of the hill dips gradually towards the stream and tends to be parallel with the bedding, that is, to become a dip slope.

Forms of this sort with well developed escarnment and dip slopes are commonly termed cuestas (Figs. 42 and 43). They are formed at all topographic elevations and usually in frequent succession, the escarpment of each usually capped with a layer more resistant than those below. Where the regional dip is constant and well pronounced over large areas, such escarpments occur at frequent intervals, facing in the opposite direction to the prevailing inclination of the rock beds (Fig. 42).

In the Oklahoma and Kansas portions of the Mid-Continent Field such eastward facing escarpments are very common. The Flint Hills of Kansas are very good examples. When well de-

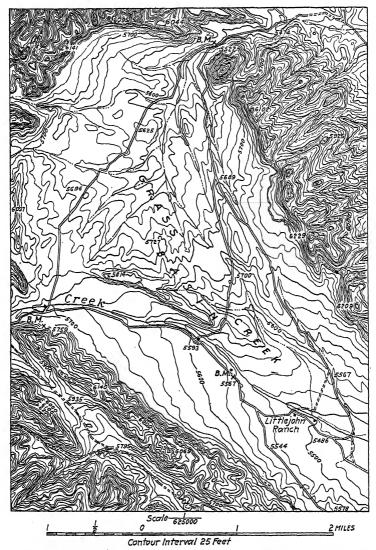


Fig. 44.—Dome with central basin and enclosing escarpment (Grass Creek Basin, Wyoming, U. S. Geol. Survey.)

veloped, they are fairly positive in their significance. They are best viewed from a distance.

In a region of prevailingly east-facing escarpments any definite line of west-facing escarpments should at once arrest attention and suggest the possible presence of east dips. Such indications alone should not be taken as final, however, but should be confirmed by other evidence. In some of the western oil fields, where the rocks dip steeply, the folds are entirely enclosed by inward-facing escarpments or rims, with a central valley (Figs. 44 and 45).

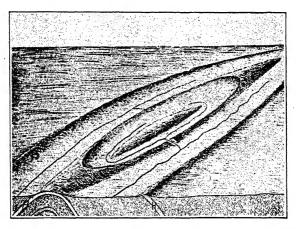


Fig. 45.—Diagram to illustrate the effects of erosion on a doubly plunging anticline made up of beds of unequal hardness. (After Chamberlin and Salisbury.)

Valley Profiles.—Longitudinal or strike valleys tend to have an unsymmetrical profile, one side being steep or nearly vertical and the other gently sloping, the latter being on that side in which the strata dip towards the stream (Fig. 42). This is a very general condition and one that can be readily noted in practically all oil fields. The side on which the dip is away from the stream is supported by the truncated edges of the resistant beds and is eroded largely by sapping. Its surface, therefore, tends to be steeply inclined. The side on which the dip is towards the stream

has less tendency and ability to form steep slopes. The inclined hard layer, and the more uniform erosion due to the larger amount of water from springs, seepages, and surface run-off, tend to plane this side down to a dip slope such as has already been described.

Only where hard and soft beds alternate are such structural features formed. The erosion of soft, homogeneous material gives little or no evidence of structural conditions.

Streams which flow in the direction in which the rocks dip (dip, or transverse streams) tend to cut steep-sided symmetrical valleys and the erosion criteria for the determination of dip is less pronounced in such valleys. Those which flow parallel to the strike of the beds (strike, or longitudinal streams) develop unsymmetrical valleys and show the best erosional evidence of structure.

A dominance of strike valleys having unsymmetrical cross section, indicates a regional dip, just as do erosion escarpments and dip slopes. In fact, such an unsymmetrical profile consists, at least approximately, of an erosion escarpment on one side and a dip slope on the other. If then, one finds in such a region a valley in which these relations of slope are reversed from the regional conditions, it should suggest, but not prove, a reversal of dip and should be given further investigation.

Topographic Highs.—As noted under erosion escarpments, drainage courses gradually work their way down the dip and farther and farther from the highest point structurally, although this condition is pronounced only in areas of alternating hard and soft rocks. If the beds dip in all directions from such a point, there is a very marked tendency for it to become one of topographic relief (Fig. 46).

Where local warping has taken place, the law, worked out by Campbell, is that erosion causes a divide to migrate towards an axis of uplift, away from one of subsidence. The coincidence of structural and topographic "highs" is therefore a natural condition and in the absence of other influencing conditions would always tend to occur. However, other influencing con-

in valleys or at points topographically low, but topographic highs are to be considered favorable areas and should be given a closer examination than is given the average territory.

They are of particular importance in the Gulf Coast Plain, where the mounds marking the sites of the salt domes often constitute the only pronounced topographic highs for many miles (Fig. 46). Erosion has done comparatively little in this very immaturely dissected area, to destroy the topographic expression of structure. Likewise the structurally highest points of many anticlines of the Mid-Continent Field coincide with a gently rounded topographic elevation.

As the degree of folding and the angle of the dip of the beds increase beyond a certain point there appears to be less and less tendency for structures to be represented by topographic elevations, possibly due in part to the shattering effect such folding has upon the rocks at the crest and the consequent ease of erosion, and partly due to rapid erosion which permits of but little lateral wear. In such cases synclines may tend to become mountains and anticlines valleys. This is seen in the familiar "synclinal mountain" type of some highly folded regions, and is emphasized by the term "basin" applied to several of the Wyoming oil fields (Figs. 44 and 45).

Break-overs.—The term "break-over" is sometimes used to designate a crest, both structurally and topographically, and signifies that the dip is nearly in opposite directions on opposite sides of the point. In reconnaissance work in oil-field geology it is sometimes employed to denote a point topographically higher than the surrounding area which coincides either with the crest of a fold, or with some point on the axis of an anticline such that both the topographic surface and the rock beds appear to dip in opposite directions on opposite sides of the point. In other cases it is used simply to designate a point where the dip reverses. At times such a break-over is recognized by the presence of dip slopes in opposite directions on opposite sides of the elevated point, but more often by the symmetrical profile of the hill, or better by the absence of erosion escarpments and the

lack of the asymmetric outline usually caused by the regional dip.

This evidence is of value in reconnaissance work and not uncommonly in detailing, where it can be used to locate the probable position of the crest of a fold in cases where exposures are few and where they occur only around the periphery of a probable structure. It should be used for this purpose only in case exposures are insufficient to permit of the application of more exact methods.

Radiating Drainage.—Where ocean or lake sediments have been folded and later converted into dry land by elevation or by the retreat of the water, the surface will conform closely to the structure. The streams of the new drainage system will start at points which are topographically and structurally high and flow in the direction of the surface slope and rock dips (consequent streams). Points structurally high will be marked by ridges and hills from which the streams will radiate and the synclines by the points of convergence of the minor and the location of the major streams. This is particularly true where the area is still very young and but little structural adjustment of drainage has occurred (Fig. 46).

Where folding takes place in an area with a previously established drainage system part of the structures will, under favorable conditions, be marked by topographic elevations. In so far as this takes place, conditions are favorable for the formation of radiating drainage both because of the surface run off and the underground drainage.

While all topographic elevations may be considered as somewhat favorable for the establishment of radial drainage, it is to be noted that those that are also structural are by far the more favorable for the development of the more perfect radial arrangement. This is because on a structural and topographic high the rock beds slope away from the crest in all directions about equally and as a result all slopes drain off about the same quantity of water and erode with equal ease; while on a topographic high that is not also structurally high, the various slopes will usually

not be structurally similar, some being escarpment slopes, other dip slopes, and hence they will drain away unequal amounts of water and erode at notably different rates, forming a drainage that does not show radial symmetry.

This feature is best developed, and is of particular importance, in the still immaturely dissected mounds that mark the sites of the salt domes of the Gulf Coast Plain (Fig. 46). Well-marked cases of drainage radiating from a central point may, and sometimes do, occur where no dome is present, but the existence of such drainage is suggestive, and wherever seen, should be investigated.

Bends in Streams.—Consequent streams flowing across an upraised area with local topographic elevations and structural conditions tend to pass around such elevations and then to continue the general direction of their course. In so far as structural elevations are shown by the topography, the streams which encounter them will be locally diverted from their general course (Fig. 46).

Streams which antedate the period of folding may or may not be deflected from their course by a local uplift, depending upon the relative rate of elevation and the rate at which the streams are able to erode their beds. If the uplift is no faster than the stream is able to lower its bed, its course may be unaltered, in which case it is a true antecedent stream.

Those streams which antedate as well as those which are younger than the structural features are affected by the principle of monoclinal shifting. In areas of inclined resistant strata, the streams seek and tend to remain on the softer members, a condition which results in a slow shifting of their course down the dip.

This condition applies to streams of all sizes, but in the Mid-Continent Field the small streams are more indicative of structural conditions than are the larger ones. However, many of the bends of the Mississippi and Missouri rivers are probably traceable to structural causes, although many bends of streams are not due to structures at all. There is a reason for all deviations

from a straight course, and a thoughtful consideration of these reasons sometimes leads to the discovery of structural conditions.

Side on Which Tributary Streams Occur.—The presence of a ridge or a divide implies that the direction of drainage on its two sides be almost diametrically opposite to each other, but it does not imply that the amount of water derived from the opposite slopes and the number of tributary streams on these slopes shall be the same. The side on which the beds dip towards the valley tends to be longer and more gentle than the opposite side and not only catches more water as run off but also a great deal from seepages and springs. It follows that tributary streams are more abundant here (Fig. 42) and that the greater number of longer and larger tributaries enter a stream on that side on which the structural dip is towards it.

This principle applies best to cases in which the minor valleys are occupied by dip streams and the major by strike. It applies only indirectly to tributary strike streams which should be equally abundant on either side of the major stream. Its perfection of development and its value in determining structure vary between these two extremes. While this criterion is undoubtedly occasionally of use in the field, it is probably of more direct value in determining likely areas by the study of maps, on which the relations of the streams can be easily seen. In the field, where dip slopes and asymmetrical valley sections are well enough developed to control drainage in this way, they are themselves likely to be noted as such.

Rough Topography.—Rough topography is characteristic of regions in late youth or maturity, the land surface being comparatively high above sea level and the streams active. Land elevation, even on a large scale, is almost invariably accompanied by local folding or deformation of some kind. This, by creating topographic elevations and by influencing erosion because of local fracturing and increased dip, is exceptionally favorable for rapid differential erosion. Under such conditions the soft, less resistant beds tend to become valleys and the hard, resistant ones to stand out as hills and ridges. The greater the dip and

the difference in ease with which alternate strata are eroded the greater is this tendency. It is to be noted that this condition applies chiefly to areas where alternate hard and soft strata are being eroded. Where the angle of dip is high, as in parts of southeastern Oklahoma and Kentucky, the influence of hard layers is increased by that of the bedding and joint planes, but in the absence of resistant layers very rough topography is seldom formed, even where there has been considerable deformation.

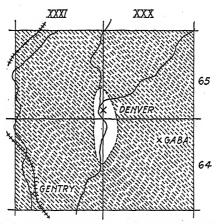


Fig. 47.—Inlier; Lansing surrounded by Douglas, Worth and Gentry Counties, Missouri. (After Buehler.)

The significance of rough topography is chiefly, however, that conditions favorable for the accumulation of oil and gas, if present, are more easily recognized, because extreme dissection favors the exposure of hard, resistant formations which are best adapted for structural observations.

Inliers and Outliers.—The truncation of a dome or anticline by denundation will expose an area of older beds (inlier) surrounded by younger ones (Figs. 45 and 47). A similar condition may be brought about by unconformity and also by faulting, in which case the inlier will be found on the upthrow side of the fault. Because of topographic relief all folds are not marked by

the presence of inliers, but the presence of such clearly determines the location of a point which is structurally high, such as may be caused by a fold, a fault, or an unconformity.

Where an area of younger rocks (outlier) is found surrounded by older rocks under such conditions as are not to be explained by their relative elevation or by unconformity, the presence of a syncline (Fig. 48), or a fault is definitely proven, the exposure being on the downthrow side in the latter case.

Inliers and outliers may yield much practical information in studying geologic maps, and sometimes are of assistance in the field where outcrops of quite unexpected formations, unlike

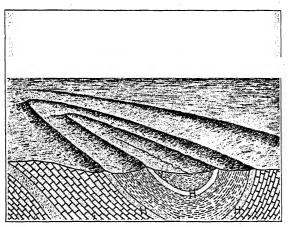


Fig. 48.—Outlier resulting from syncline. (After Willis.)

those of the general region, are exposed in isolated spots under conditions which can not be explained by the topographic features alone. Such is the case in the Gulf Coast Field where small outcrops of Cretaceous or early Eocene rocks are exposed in many cases at the crests of small domes, entirely surrounded by later Tertiary or Quaternary beds.

Soil.—To be of value in determining structure soil must usually be residual and must possess certain peculiarities of chemical or textural composition by which it may be recognized as having resulted either from some certain layer or stratum or from a stratum of a certain lithologic character, such as limestone or sandstone. When characteristic it may identify the position of the parent formation.

While elevations at the upper limit of such soil occurrences are sometimes taken because of the want of exposures, soil is more often of service to the geologist in "walking the outcrop" along a hillside where exposures are not continuous, by aiding him to feel certain of his correlation.

It is also true that the nature of the soil determines in part the character of the vegetation. One often sees evidence that certain plants or trees favor limestone soils, others sandy soils, and still others soils from shale and slate.

Because of chemical alterations, leaching, and mixing with other substances such as humus from plant decay, soils may lose many of the characteristics of the parent rock.

The abnormal occurrence of salt, gypsum, sulphur, asphaltic residue, paraffin dirt, and "sour dirt" ("copperas dirt"), in the soils of many Gulf Coast salt domes is a factor commonly taken into consideration in a search for possible oil structures in that region.

The salt cores of the Gulf Coast domes are rarely actually exposed, but salt is often formed in the soil, and salt marshes commonly occur above the dome. Likewise the presence of abnormal amounts of salt or gypsum in the soil of this area suggests the possible proximity of a dome and calls for further investigation.

Small particles and seams or veinlets of sulphur in the soil often result from the oxidation of sulphuretted hydrogen in seeps or springs, and not uncommonly are associated with Coastal Plain salt domes. Owing to the very prevalent association of sulphur bearing gases, such as H_2S or SO_2 , with the salt domes, the presence of sulphur in the soil in that region is usually considered an indication of the presence of favorable conditions for oil accumulation.

"Sour dirt" or "copperas dirt," dirt impregnated with sul-

phates resulting from the escape of SO_2 or H_2S or both, are also common and are thought to have about the same significance as sulphur in the soil.

Asphalt in the soil has usually been taken to be an indication of oil seepage, and hence to point to conditions favorable for accumulation. Since escaping oil can move long distances laterally, it must be borne in mind that not always, by any means, will the point of maximum accumulation be directly beneath the seepage, so that the drilling of seepage areas has often lead to disappointing results. Nevertheless, it is an indication not to be overlooked. In the Coastal Plain, it is said that asphaltic sea-wax¹ has been known to have been thrown up by the waves; but this must not be confused with asphaltic soils related to true oil seepage.

"Paraffin dirt" has frequently been cited as an indication of oil. Formerly believed to be a true paraffin derived from oil seepage, this substance is now believed to contain little or no true paraffin, but to be a form of peat, or humus, limited to soils where gas seepage has prevented more perfect decay of the organic soil constituents.²

If it is true, as has been suggested, that methane (marsh gas) may result in the formation of so-called paraffin dirt in soils, then such occurrences could no longer be considered to point with certainty to oil accumulation and seepage. The entire subject is one of very recent interest and still open to various interpretations. The fact may be that while "paraffin dirt" is genetically connected with true natural gas seeps from salt domes in some cases, in others it may result from seepage of recently formed marsh gas and have no significance. Its discovery, however, should at once excite suspicion and lead to a very close scrutiny of the areas in question.

¹ Matteson, W. G., Principles and problems of oil prospecting in the Gulf Coast Country, *Bull.* A. I. M. E., No. 134, p. 444, 1918.

² Brokaw, A. D., An interpretation of the so-called paraffin dirt of the Gulf Coast Oil Fields, *Bull.* A. I. M. E., No. 136, April, 1918, p. 947. See also discussion of this paper in Nos. 139 and 140.

Float.—Attempts to follow the trace of a formation along the erosion surface are commonly met with difficulty because the outcrop is discontinuous. In fact, it is an ever increasing wonder to the geologist that all traces of the presence of a truncated limestone stratum can be so completely concealed. Where there is no similar bed sufficiently close that the float from the two can mix, or where the float from the bed followed is of such a character that it can be distinguished from otherwise similar beds, the covered line of truncation can often be followed from one outcrop to another by means of the fragments. and elevations can even be taken between at points where the highest float is found. The degree of certainty of such observations will of course depend upon conditions such as the abundance and distinctive character of the float, the topography, and the distance between exposures. In the Mid-Continent Field float is of great assistance in tracing the limestone strata of the Pennsylvanian series.

Water Seepages.—As the terms are here used seepages differ from springs in that the amount of water in the former is insufficient to flow over the surface, and in that the flow is less localized. Seepages are thus characterized by a linear extent rather than by one or two points of outlet.

Water falling as rain sinks through the upper pervious formations until an impervious layer is encountered, or until the water table or point of saturation of the rocks is reached. In the former case the impervious layer is generally a shale bed along the upper surface of which the water flows to where the bed comes to the surface on the hillside, where it has been truncated by erosion. Seepages of this type thus occur along lines of outcrop at the top of the impervious stratum, and are generally limited to that topographic slope on which the beds dip towards the valley.

Where a valley is located in a syncline or trough, seepage may occur on both hillsides and may be so interpreted. However, judgment should be exercised in all interpretations. During wet seasons or immediately after a rain the water table within

a hill may have been so raised that the water comes out on both sides of the hill irrespective of the direction of the dip of the rocks. Such conditions are here designated as water table seepages as opposed to structural seepages. Structural seepages are thus characterized by being apparent through longer periods of time than water table seepages, by their location being in the nature of a line, often well up on the hill-sides, as contrasted with the generally irregular points of issue of water table seepages, and by other evidence indicating continued moist conditions and the presence of an impervious stratum.

Yet under special conditions water table seepages may show any or all of these characteristics. Where the distance between drainage courses is large as compared with the surface relief, water may issue from the hillside through a long period of time, even though the beds dip into the hillside at that point. Usually water table seepages will take place unobserved under the soil and wash near the bottom of the valley, but where impervious strata and insufficient structural drainage occur, the back water so raises the water table under the hills that the water overflows the truncated edge of the impervious layer. This condition is uncommon and can generally be decided by means of one's knowledge of the area and by a consideration of the relation of the distance between drainage courses to the topographic relief.

The term seepage is sometimes applied to diminutive springs, or to springs during that portion of the year when the flow is small. The structural significance of seepages of this nature is identical with that of springs as described in the following topic.

Well-marked lines of seepage, well up on a valley side, are likely to mark the outcrop of a shale layer, and, where the line is moderately inclined, the direction and approximate angle of dip may often be suspected from a study of such a line particularly in conjunction with the vegetation developed thereon.

Salt seepages and sulphuretted water in the Coastal Plain region are said to suggest the proximity of a salt dome, and should be closely examined for corroborative evidence.

Springs.—Springs differ from seepages in the amount and localization of flow. Their origin and interpretation are much the same except that they infer, but do not necessitate, some other structural condition which has caused the localization of the flow. Not uncommonly this is due to a troughing of the beds, but it may be caused by the presence of a joint or fault, or by damming of seepage waters along all but a few points. Springs should always be carefully examined for evidence as to cause.

Those which occur high on the hillsides, on the slope opposed to the regional dip should be carefully inspected; and in the absence of evidence that they are water table springs, the suggestion is that they are the result of a reversal of dip, and the surrounding area should be examined for such structural conditions.

Vegetation.—Under the arid or semi-arid conditions which characterize many of the oil fields both moisture and soil are important factors in determining the amount and character of the vegetation and the portion of the year through which it will remain green. Water seepages and shale beds, commonly found together, are both favorable to plant life. It is therefore often possible to determine the direction and amount of dip by a change in the kind of vegetation or by its ranker and greener character, a condition which occurs as bands along certain hillsides, especially during certain seasons of the year. On such slopes detailed work can often be successfully carried out, even in the absence of a single rock exposure, while in reconnaissance work the general direction of the dip can often be determined at a distance of a number of miles. In fact in some cases such bands may be most readily seen at a distance.

Resistance to the penetration of roots, a deficiency of moisture, and excessively steep slopes are detrimental to tree growth. Since these conditions are often dependent upon the structural position of the strata, the relative abundance of tree growth on

the various hill slopes may largely be determined by, and be indicative of, the structural condition.

Where the surface formation is soft, as clay or slightly cemented sandstone, and the slopes are therefore characteristically at low angles, no relation between the abundance of tree growth and the structure is to be expected, since the roots can penetrate through the beds almost as readily as along them, and the penetration is so deep that it minimizes the difference in the relative amount of moisture usually noted on dip and escarpment slopes. But where the beds consist alternately of hard and soft layers, especially of limestone and shale, the difference is often pronounced.

The hard layers which characteristically underlie dip slopes resist penetration by the roots, causing them to be poorly attached and often of such shallow penetration as not to reach permanent moisture. Surfaces which truncate the beds permit of easy penetration by the roots in directions parallel to their bedding, a condition which, for a given angle of slope, is best developed where the slope is in the direction opposite to that of the dip of the beds.

The underground drainage is usually in the direction of the dip of the beds so that the maximum amount of moisture is supplied on those slopes which dip in the direction of rock inclination but at a greater angle. The minimum moisture is found on the opposite slope.

Unfavorable extremes may in each case be found either on those slopes which dip in the same direction as the beds, or on those which dip in the opposite direction. Dip slopes are characterized by poor penetration and low moisture while areas which slope in the same direction as the beds dip, but at a steeper angle, so that they truncate the beds, have the best of conditions, fair penetration and abundant moisture. Escarpment slopes, on the other hand, have good penetration, but a low moisture content, and may in some cases be so steep as to allow of no soil accumulation and but little tree growth.

Both the absolute and the relative effects of these factors

vary with local conditions, each being of major importance in certain places. The effect is best shown in semi-arid regions where the difference in the ease of penetration, the amount of moisture, or the steepness of the slope may be the deciding factor in determining whether or not there can be tree growth.

Oil and Gas Seepages.—Seepages of oil and gas are among the earliest and most widely recognized indications of possible oil fields. That they are valuable indications is generally admitted. Sometimes films of iron oxide over pools of water have been mistaken for coatings of oil, the superficial resemblance being marked. Such coatings break into angular fragments when disturbed and will not form in lines as will oil. Odor and inflammability should constitute further and sufficient tests for discrimination. Gas seeps may consist of carbon dioxide (CO₂) (non-inflammable) or of marsh gas, and bear no relation whatever to petroleum occurrence. Many serious errors have been made in assuming that a small escape of marsh gas indicated the presence of a large body of gas or of petroleum. Such gas is being constantly formed in most sloughs and bubbles to the surface on being disturbed.

Nor must it be forgotten that, even though seeps are marked, accumulation may never have been in sufficient quantities to yield paying amounts, or that the seep may have been so large and existed so long as to totally deplete the reservoir.

It must be remembered also that oil (and this is even more true for gas) may move laterally considerable distances before escaping to the surface, consequently the pool is not often directly below the seep, so that when a seep is located, a careful structural examination should be made, as it is usually not advisable to drill directly on the seep or even close to it. The seep is merely an indication that a given horizon is oil or gas bearing, and that where favorable structural conditions can be located it may be worth prospecting.

Faults and Their Recognition.—A fault may be defined as a fracture or a break in the rocks, along which there has been relative movement of the walls (Figs. 7-13). The discrepancy

between the ends of the beds will depend on the amount of displacement along the fault plane, which may vary from a few inches up to several thousand feet.

It is not often that one can actually see the fault plane in the field. Perhaps the most commonly used indication of faulting is based on the distribution of the formations. Not uncommonly when "walking an outcrop," one comes to a point where the bed seems to end abruptly. If the bed is one that outcrops conspicuously and the disappearance seems complete, one would be led to suspect a fault, especially if the topographic conditions remain favorable for an outcrop. Faulting must not be assumed on such evidence alone, however, as beds are sometimes so completely buried as to defy location, not even float or soil giving any clue.

If a fault is suspected, corroborative evidence should be sought. This may consist of tracing the bed on the opposite side of the adjacent valley, or hill. If it is found to disappear abruptly there also, one's conclusion of faulting is greatly strengthened.

Further, if the position of the lost bed is found to be occupied by rocks of an entirely different character farther along the hillside, in such position that the normal dip of the beds cannot account for their location, the evidence of faulting is very strong, and, in absence of opposing evidence, should be accepted.

Slabs of rock standing in a vertical or a steeply inclined position in the soil near the point where the bed seems to be cut off, especially if such slabs are striated or sickensided and are arranged along a line, constitute additional confirmatory evidence, although slump or even a very minor buckling of the rocks may cause slabs to stand in a steeply inclined manner.

Where beds are flat lying, or nearly so, any very sudden departure from that position to steep inclination, while it may represent folding or slumping, should also be investigated for evidence of faulting.

In cases where a series of rather similar limestone beds occur in sandstone or shale, it may happen that the ends of two distinct and separate beds are so faulted as to be brought into line and made to appear like a continuous bed. Notable cases of this have been reported, in which the observer walked what appeared to be a continuous outcrop, whereas in reality he walked from one limestone across a fault onto a similar limestone that should normally have been many feet above or below.

Faulting must be carefully identified in the field chiefly because failure to recognize it commonly leads to incorrect correlations and hence to incorrect mapping of structural conditions. Faults must be located not only that the true structural conditions may be known, but also because they may either condemn a fold by their presence or furnish the necessary conditions for the accumulation of oil and gas.

Where to look for Outcrops.—Little can be accomplished in the way of structural mapping in areas where no outcrops occur. In certain regions in which bed rock is deeply buried by alluvium, glacial drift, or dune sand, the geologist can accomplish but little in the location of favorable structural features. In regions where outcrops are few, much time can often be saved by knowing where to search for rock ledges. As a rule, very flat hill tops and broad meandering stream valleys are not likely to show exposures of bed rock. Steep hill slopes are more apt to be favorable than gentle ones, and the steeper upper courses of valleys than their broader lower reaches. The more ruggedly a region is dissected, the more apt there are to be bare ledges exposed.

Outcrops of the Oil Sand.—In wild cat territory, especially if the distance from production is very great, outcrops of prospective oil horizons furnish valuable information. Where exposed by erosion most, if not all, of the available gas and oil in the immediate area will have escaped, as in the San Juan region of Utah. The farther the outcrop from the proposed test, and the greater the intervening folding, the less danger of such drainage.

The presence of petroleum residues in sands has the same significance as oil seeps, showing that the conditions have been favorable for the generation of oil and increasing the probabilities of there being undrained deposits if the conditions are otherwise favorable.

"Red beds" are in general unfavorable to the generation of oil and gas within themselves because they are unusually almost or quite barren of organic remains. However, oil and gas generated elsewhere may migrate into such strata and have been found in formations of this character. Coarse, porous sandstones interbedded with black shales or porous dolomitic limestones are usually favorable because they contain organic matter from which the oil and gas may be derived, and also include members well adapted to the migration and accumulation of these substances.

Beds may change in character within short distances, and their irregularity along the outcrop often furnishes the best available evidence as to what variations can be expected in the other directions.

CHAPTER IV

FIELD OPERATIONS

THE FIELD PARTY

Transportation.—The oil geologist is required to go into all sorts of out of the way places and to do his work in a minimum amount of time. It therefore follows that much of his traveling is done on unimproved roads and that he must adopt the most advantageous method of transportation. Traveling on foot, on horseback, by buggy, by motorcycle, and by automobile have each been found to be applicable to certain conditions. While in some places, as in parts of Kentucky, it is necessary to travel on horseback or on foot, there are very few places in the western states that cannot be approached sufficiently close by an automobile, and this is now the universal and almost exclusive method of travel.

Reconnaissance work can usually be carried on very well from an automobile and a larger area can be covered in this way than by any other means, although such work must often be supplemented by various side trips on foot. In fairly level country and even in areas which are quite rough, the instrument man in detailing often keeps the car near him at each set-up, while in many cases the rodman has used either a car or a saddle horse with very satisfactory and very much accelerated results. The work that can be obtained from a cheap light car and the difficult road conditions which can be overcome are remarkable, and while the life of a car under very bad conditions may be limited to one or two years, the time saved more than compensates for the additional expense.

The motorcycle has been used in reconnaissance work with fairly satisfactory results even in rough and sandy areas. How-

ever, it requires much more skill for safe operation than a car so that the chance of being injured is greater, and it is not adapted to the carrying of an assistant or baggage, neither is it the most comfortable means of transportation in dust, sand, ruts, or mud; conditions which insure that its use will be opposed by employees and that it will not even be given a fair test in most cases.

Personnel.—Individual field parties consist of one, two, or three men. In reconnaissance work each party consists of a geologist with or without a driver, although the use of a driver is preferable so that the geologist may give all of his attention to the area he is covering. In places like portions of Kansas, Oklahoma, and Texas where the dips are low, the exposures few, or the vegetation so plentiful that the general structure is difficult to read, it is quite satisfactory to use an instrument man as a driver so that one is in a position at any time to take the elevations of a few points and thus quickly determine whether or not the area is worthy of further attention.

In detailing, the party usually consists of a geologist and an instrument man, but under some conditions it has been found to be expeditious to employ an extra rodman to assist the geologist. In open country where there are few trees, and where many and long sights can be taken from one set-up, the instrument man can take care of two rodmen (the geologist and an assistant), but in timbered or rough areas where set-ups are numerous, a third man is of but little value. In general these conditions so change from day to day and the problems of correlation are so difficult that the employment of a third man is not practicable.

The use of the automobile has made it possible to work so far from one base that only in very rare cases is it found necessary to consider the use of a camp outfit and its attendants.

The Geologist.—The general requirements of a geologist have been well summarized by Hayes in his "Handbook for field geologists" from which part of the following is taken.

Physical and Mental Qualities.—"To insure even a moderate degree of success as a field geologist one must possess certain physical and mental

qualities, the lack of which may be in no wise to one's discredit and may involve no particular disability in many other professions. It is well therefore to determine in advance of the long apprenticeship required whether or not the candidate possesses these necessary prerequisites.

"It is not the desire to discourage young men from entering this profession. A healthy body will respond and develop to meet the demand and, to one who likes outdoor life, the work will doubtless be more pleasing than most other subjects.

"The first qualification is a good physique and a strong constitution, for sooner or later severe and long-continued physical exertion will be required and a defect in ability to sustain this exertion will be a serious handicap.

"The second is adaptability. Few occupations present so wide a diversity in conditions under which work must be carried on as that of the field geologist. His surroundings may vary all the way from the luxury of a summer hotel to the bare necessities which he must carry on his back, and he must be able to adapt himself with equal readiness to either extreme. If one cannot so adapt himself, but is dependent upon any particular kind of surroundings, he should abandon the idea of becoming a field geologist, for he will find the occupation extremely unsatisfactory.

"A geologist must possess a practical knowledge of horsemanship, of boating, and of general woodcraft, so that he will be equally at home in the saddle, in the canoe, or on foot in a trackless forest. One is fortunate who has already acquired this practical knowledge, but if he does not possess it he must be sure that he has an aptitude for acquiring it quickly."

The requirement of a good physique is more important in petroleum geology than in many other branches of the subject. As the work is carried on from day to day through summer and winter the petroleum geologist not only encounters high and low temperatures together with great and abrupt changes, but also poor living conditions and bad water. The use of the automobile has improved the conditions much, but geologic work is still carried on in many undeveloped areas.

Training.—No one can fully understand the principles of geology who has not had a good grounding in the fundamental sciences. That one may become a proficient geologist without

recourse to the assistance of an instructor is only theoretically possible, although a general knowledge of the subject can be so obtained.

The field training of a geologist, *i.e.*, putting into practice what he has learned at school and the observation of new facts, especially the latter, is of equal importance with the preliminary training and, perhaps, more likely to be only partially successful because the student who has been guided and pushed through school is now for the first time left to his own resources.

Preferably he should start his field work in the capacity of an instrument man. A thorough knowledge of the manipulation, accuracy, and limitations of the instruments will later be of value in supervising and training instrument men, and in the coordination of this work with that of the geologist. But more important than this is the opportunity to see and learn the practical application of geologic methods.

Our colleges and universities are turning out young men with good preliminary training who commonly enter upon their new work with enthusiasm, yet many of them are inclined to forget that life is a continuous school and that their training is not ended when they are able to follow an outcrop with a fair degree of certainty. A constant study of the interrelation of topography, drainage, stratigraphy, and structure is needed. There is a reason for the location and shape of every hill and valley, and this reason almost always contains information that is of value in determining geologic structure.

Geologists who can do fair detailed work, and who can correctly interpret general structural criteria which have been called to their attention are numerous, and some of them become very expert in the mechanical following and identification of outcrops. But men who can see and understand what they look at, men whose eyes call to their consciousness any condition abnormal to the regional dip features, are scarce. They are the more valuable for both reconnaissance and detailed work. When outcrops are uncertain one will map a structure as he sees it, so that it is essential that he "see it" correctly. A young

geologist who, in driving through an area in which he is to work, chats with the driver, and keeps his eyes and mind from the consideration of the structural features which he is passing, is not developing to the efficient state which might be his. Responsibility, with its accompanying "grief," is a great factor in impressing indelibly on a man's mind associated criteria, so that when his eyes again see the same features, they are immediately called to his consciousness.

Responsibility goes with the rod since the geologist or rodman is usually in charge of the party. Few positions require men of greater integrity. Not uncommonly the geologist is in possession of information valuable to others besides his employer or client. Not uncommonly he can profit, at least temporarily, by lending his name and influence to projects that he knows are not fair to all concerned. True honesty also includes careful and conscientious work in the field for a needless error may result in the loss of valuable opportunities or of thousands of dollars spent in unwarranted drill tests.

Suggestions to Geologists.—(1) Probably the most important suggestion that can be offered a young geologist is to walk all outcrops. There are limestone "zones" which consist of alternate limestone and shale strata, in which the layers may be very irregular in thickness and interval. They may thicken and thin, come in and die out, in short distances. It is seldom that one can walk over a hill and safely identify a given stratum on the other side.

- (2) In general, carry two or more outcrop lines if possible so that by the outcrop of one or the other, and by the interval between them you may know that your correlation is correct. A given stratum seldom outcrops continuously and occasionally a fault will bring together two similiar strata, a proper identification of which may be missed without the use of a second stratum and the interval.
 - (3) Help the instrument man.
- (a) Give him only such sights as he may reasonably be expected to get with the required accuracy.

- (b) Make it a point to stand with your feet at the same elevation as the bottom of the rod, for the instrument man often identifies the rod readings by points on the rodman's person.
- (c) Hold the rod so as to obtain the best practical illumination (note the increased legibility of fifth rod from the left side in Pl. VII). If it is questionable as to whether it is better to give more illumination or a better view of the rod, rotate it slowly about its vertical axis through possibly desirable angles. The instrument man will take the readings at the best point.
- (d) In giving a sight, expose a maximum portion of the rod as viewed through the instrument. Quite commonly the lower foot or two cannot be seen from the point of set-up, while in the brush care is needed to expose a sufficient length of the rod for a stadia reading. The longer the sight the more important it is that a maximum portion of the rod be visible, but care should be taken not to confuse the instrument man by holding it on a point higher than that on which you stand.
- (e) Where timber intervenes and there is a chance that a limb, either near you or near the instrument, may interfere with the sight, after waiting a minute move the top of the rod slowly back and forth in a vertical plane normal to the line of sight. This may permit of the reading of a point otherwise obscured.
- (f) In giving a sight it is well to get into the habit of holding one or both hands and forearms in a horizontal position as a marker of some definite point, such as the five-foot division on the rod.
- (g) It may happen that because of obstructed view the instrument man may not be able to see a sufficient length of the rod to make determinations. In such cases the rodman may, providing the conditions are such that there is no probability of the instrument man using points on his person for determining the rod reading, lift the rod from the ground and hold it as high as he is able. This should be done on side-sights only and the instrument man must be informed, at the first opportunity, of the distance the rod was lifted above the point.
- (h) In many instances where the instrument man cannot see the rod when placed on the desired station, the determinations

can be made if the rodman will pace the distance and determine by hand level the elevation of a nearby point, preferably in the line of sight, where the rod can be read. The corrections are given to the instrument man at the first opportunity.

(i) Signals.—The signals by means of which the geologist (the rodman) and the instrument man communicate with each other at a distance should be as few, simple, and legible as is practicable. In reading such signals the greater difficulty is experienced by the rodman, as he usually relies upon the unaided eye, while the instrument man has the advantage of his telescope. A few rodmen carry a small field glass, to aid them in distinguishing signals.

It is expedient to be able to give signals by three different methods, each being the most advantageous under certain conditions. These methods are by arm or body movements, by whistle, and by mirror flashes. Arm movements are the most used, whistle and mirror signals are of particular value in attracting attention, and mirror signals can be read at distances such that the others can not be seen or heard. The flash from a mirror on a sunny day is so brilliant that it will usually attract attention immediately.

The information most commonly conveyed by signals is in part as follows: station; "rod-up;" "release;" turning-point; "search" or "where-are-you" call; move to right; move to left; move forward; move backward; and section corner or land mark.

The call by the rodman for a station and the "rod-up" reply by the instrument man, should be the same since there is no chance for confusion, and since the repetition of a signal is the recognized means of acknowledging it. This may be given by waving the extended arm above the head, but the rodman commonly designates a station, or point where observations are to be taken, by holding the extended rod in an inclined position, or by moving the upper end of the extended rod back and forth, sometimes supplementing this by waving his arm over his head until he is recognized by the "rod-up" signal. A single blast from the

whistle or repeated flashes from a mirror may also be used for this purpose.

When the instrument man has finished his observations he "releases" the rodman by raising and lowering both arms extended to the sides. Two blasts from the whistle is often a convenient "release." The mirror is used for this purpose only when other means fail, because parts of the instrument reflect the light giving similar flashes which may be misunderstood. The rodman accepts a mirror "release" reluctantly and only when he is convinced by the rapidity and number of the flashes that they are intentional.

The turning-point signal may be given by a full arm circular movement in front of the body, by six short blasts of the whistle, or, if necessary by mirror flashes. Inasmuch as an error in the observations taken upon a turning-point enters into all of the following determinations, the station is not located at a great distance from the instrument, usually less than half a mile, and the observations are taken with more care than are those of side stations. Special conditions such as longer shots, poor background, or the presence of brush may cause the rodman to have trouble in seeing that his turning-point signal has been accepted. However, if the same order of procedure is always followed there is little cause for a misunderstanding of signals. The rodman signals a station which is accepted by the "rod-up" signal from the instrument man. The former then signals a turningpoint and refuses to put up his rod until it also is accepted in The instrument man looking through the instrument notes that the rod is not up and has no difficulty in recognizing the turning-point signal. He then replies by arm movement or by the whistle. If the rodman fails to recognize these, as shown by his failure to "rod-up," the former may resort to mirror flashes. The station having been recognized by the instrument man, the rodman after giving the turn signal for such a time that he is sure that the instrument man must have seen it, and recognizing that the conditions are such that the regular signals probably cannot be seen by him, will recognize a signal of almost any kind as an acceptance.

While it is supposed to be part of the duty of the instrument man to keep track of the whereabouts of the rodman, this is often impossible. The latter in following an outcrop around a hill or through the brush or in going off on a side trip to check the correlation, often disappears for short or long intervals, not uncommonly to appear again unexpectedly at some other point. Also the rodman in giving all of his attention to the immediate problems may lose track of the instrument man and spend time and patience in vainly signaling an unresponsive rock or stump on a distant hill. A "search" or "where-are-you" call such as three blasts from a whistle or the flashing of a mirror over the area where the one sought may be, will often overcome this difficulty.

It is quite essential that land monuments such as section corners be located both in order to determine the relation between the geologic structure and the land lines and as a check on the direction and length of the traverse being run. The instrument man may signal the rodman of the presence of a corner, which his map shows to be in close proximity, by moving the extended arms alternately from the horizontal to the vertical position or by four blasts from the whistle, the first two being separated by a pause from the second two. However, it is better if possible to anticipate this and other conditions which may necessitate signals, and talk them over when the two members of the party are together. This together with a careful location of all stations will eliminate the need of complicated signals. The main difficulty in signaling is found in the rodman trying to attract the attention and in reading the signals of the instrument man. In short sights but little difficulty is experienced, but where the distance is greater than 2,000 ft., care and often ingenuity must be exercised. Under such conditions signals should be movements, not positions, and these should be assisted by holding in the hand, or hands, a white article, such as a handkerchief or the face of an open note book, or a black article, such as a hat or the back of a note book, that color being chosen which contrasts the most with the background. Arm signals often cannot be distinguished

apart at distances of half a mile or greater, and it is rarely essential that they should be. The rodman accepts the first signal as the "rod-up," and the second as the "release," providing a sufficient interval of time has elapsed between them to allow for the taking of the instrument readings. Therefore if it becomes necessary to give a movement signal it should precede the "rod-up" or follow it so closely that there can be no danger of its being taken for the "release," and should be continued until the rodman surmises its meaning. A moving object is quite readily detected by the eye, and under very bad conditions an instrument man may be compelled to run out to one side of the instrument and then quickly to the other in order to indicate to the rodman that he is signaling.

The Instrument Man. Qualities and Training.—The physical requirements of the instrument man differ in no way from those of the geologist or rodman. Preferably and not un ommonly the instrument man is an aspirant for the position of geologist. In such cases their preliminary training should have been the same.

That the instrument man should understand the principles of surveying is evident; he should also be resourceful. The ever varying conditions under which he works, such as the length of sights, varying illumination, partially obscured vision, windy weather, varying backgrounds, difficulties of signaling, and different instruments with different attachments, necessitate that he know all the methods by which such difficulties can be overcome, be familiar with their general accuracy, and be able to choose quickly and unhesitatingly between them.

A young instrument man in an earnest effort to "make good" is sometimes tempted to commit the one unpardonable sin of falsifying his errors of closure. Missed sights can be retaken, wrong computations may be recast, but a single wrong elevation may result in the loss of thousands of dollars and perhaps of the rodman's reputation.

He should have a general knowledge of structural geology, and in particular of the general features of the work of the rodman. To a considerable extent the rapidity with which the work is carried on depends upon the location of instrument stations which must to a large extent be left to the judgment of the instrument man.

One might succinctly express the general idea of an instrument man's duties by stating that he is supposed to get whatever sights are given him, always to have his computations and records completed, never to lose sight of the rodman, and never to complain of the length of sights and turning-points. Of course this is impossible but it expresses the general goal towards which he should strive.

Suggestions to Instrument Men.— (a) The first requirement is accuracy, but only to the extent that it is needed for the work in hand. Greater accuracy and neatness are desirable and should be striven for, but they must be subordinated to rapidity in taking sights. The time required to complete a sight between the "rod-up" and the "rod-down" or "release" signals varies with conditions but is usually from 20 to 60 seconds. The rodman does not appreciate being delayed or repeating a sight.

(b) The instrument man is entirely dependent upon his alidade. It follows that he should know it thoroughly. The line of collimation and the spacing of the stadia wires should be tested occasionally although they seldom give any trouble.

The striding level needs more or less constant attention and should be tested at least a number of times a day and sometimes at every set-up; experience with a given instrument determines how often this should be done.

It may be safely assumed that the graduations of the vertical arc are correct.

The divisions of the Beaman stadia arc, if present, should be tested against those of the vertical arc. Instruments of the same make and model do not have the same accuracy.

The gradienter screw, if present, should also be tested against the vertical arc for accuracy. In old instruments special care should be taken to reduce the effect of "back-lash." (See pp. 96 and 203.)

The instrument man should know (preferably in tenths of a foot per thousand feet) the value of one division of the striding level bubble-tube, since this determines how carefully he must adjust and level the tube.

- (c) Set up the instrument so as to be able to see as much as possible of the outcrop which the geologist is following.
- (d) Other things being equal, save a sight by setting up on the outcrop.
- (e) It is convenient to know the height of the different parts of the rodman's person.
- (1) Where there is a choice, choose a background that permits the signals to be best seen. In general the sky line is the best background.
- (g) Many errors can be prevented by becoming proficient in estimating distance; this is best done by estimating each sight before taking it.
- (h) A competent instrument man should keep his elevations computed up to date at all times, without delaying his rodman, except on very short sights where there is but little time at his disposal. Likewise all computations must be checked. In most cases this can be done in the field.
- (i) It is good practice to record all observations as taken, i.e., if a half-stadia intercept is taken, or if the upper stadia wire is read in place of the horizontal wire, record it as such.
- (j) Be sure of the observations. This may require that beginners take two readings of all observations and record them before "releasing" the rodman, but experienced instrument men can usually take all the observations and "release" the rodman before recording any of them.

RECONNAISSANCE WORK

Necessity for Reconnaissance Work.—In general, reconnaissance work consists of a preliminary examination of an area to determine what part of it, if any, warrants the time and expense of a careful detailed survey. Such a reconnaissance

should precede all detailed work, and will save much time by eliminating such areas as are clearly unpromising. The detailing of large regions without preliminary reconnaissance is a practice generally to be condemned, although it is often done because the chief geologist fears to leave to less competent subordinates the decision of what to map and what to omit. The accuracy of such work varies greatly with the plan of operation, with the difficulties encountered, and with the object of the survey.

Reconnaissance methods are also employed when large areas must be examined rapidly, especially if detailed information is not desired, or if time does not permit of more thorough work. Sometimes the definite presence of a structure and its approximate extent and size are determined, while in other cases suggestive evidence only, but not proof, of the presence of a structure is obtained. Not uncommonly it is highly desirable to determine, if possible, the location, approximate extent, and size of the structure so that the land may be leased before detailed work is undertaken, as the latter tends to attract attention to the area and not uncommonly results in an increase in the price that must be paid for the leases and even in the loss of some of them.

In many cases reconnaissance work will show that no favorable structural conditions are present, or that there are not sufficient outcrops to warrant an effort to make a detailed map. If the conditions are very well-defined, the reconnaissance may secure all the needed information. As a rule, however, reconnaissance, if the results are favorable, should be followed by detailed work.

Characteristics of a Good Reconnaissance Man.—Good reconnaissance men are scarce. They must not only know how to interpret conditions which are brought to their attention, a matter in which most geologists are quite proficient, but they must be able to recognize significant conditions on sight. Many men in driving through an area will permit their eyes to wander over conspicuously high or low regional dips without having them impressed upon their consciousness, or will see west-facing erosion escarpments in regions of west regional dip without being impressed by their significance. So common is this, even among

men of good education and training, that one is inclined to think that a reconnaissance man is born with certain peculiarities which the average man does not possess. Certain it is that a man will never be good at such work who does not make a careful and thoughtful observation of the topographic forms he meets from day to day so that he will not only know the meaning of deviations from the general type of the area, but his eye will immediately notify his consciousness of such changes.

Methods of Reconnaissance.—Where the area to be covered is large, such as the reconnaissance of any considerable part of a state, it is advisable to get all the available topographic maps of the area, and study them carefully before going to the field. Drainage peculiarities, asymmetric ridges or cuestas with typical dip slopes, and other features that can be recognized on the map, may suggest certain areas as being especially worthy of investigation. All available geologic maps should be examined carefully for faults, folds, and regional dips, and reports should be studied, to familiarize the observer with both the structure and the stratigraphy. There is no use wasting time in the field securing data that someone else has already secured and published.

Upon going to the field, one of the first matters to be considered is location. The field man should be supplied with a good base map of the area, if one is available, and on it he should constantly keep track of his location. If no map is to be had, he should learn the location of as many land corners and lines as possible, that he may always know where he is. In country that is sectionized, especially where roads follow the land lines, this is easy. In some part of Kentucky, West Virginia, Louisiana, and Texas, the matter of location is a difficult one. If it is not possible to determine absolute location, the field man should at least keep careful track of the relative locations of his observations, a matter very essential in the proper interpretation of structure.

After arriving in the field and ascertaining his position, the geologist makes observations regarding dip. (Criteria for the recognition of structure are summed up in the preceding chapter.) Where timber is abundant, observations may be wholly limited

to short distances. There are, however, many criteria for the determination of direction of dip that can be read to advantage only at a distance, and are often quite valueless at close range. Such are erosion escarpments, dip slopes, lines of outcrop with very low dip, lines of vegetation, and the like. When making observations of this character, an automobile equipped with a speedometer is of much assistance, as it enables one to view in a short time the same feature from several different directions, and to keep approximate track of distances.

Where the angle of dip is sufficiently pronounced so that the observer feels no doubt of its direction, it is at once indicated in its proper place on his map, by an arrow (Fig. 40). If there is any doubt, it is checked by aneroid, by hand level, or in some cases by telescopic hand level or alidade. Where there is any reasonable doubt as to correlation of beds sighted on, the outcrop should actually be traced between the points of observation. Nearby observations that are confusing by reason of minor variations are often easily checked at a greater distance.

In many areas of prominent outcrops, a very cursory examination will often reveal the fact that there is nothing but normal regional dip, and show that further work is not warranted. Or the preliminary examination may soon show that there are no outcrops whatever on which to make observations, and reveal the uselessness of further examination. If the presence of a "reversal" is suspected, elevations are usually checked by hand level, aneroid, or other means, and the observations plotted on the sketch map.

Reconnaissance should also include a study of the outcrops of possible oil sands and impervious cover, if they outcrop in the vicinity; and should include observations on water supply, fuel, and transportation, in areas that are structurally promising.

If the conclusion is reached that a detailed survey is advisable, the approximate location of the structure and the probable area to be mapped should be indicated on the sketch, particularly if the detailed survey is to be made by someone other than the man who made the reconnaissance. In such a case the reconnaissance data should always be at the disposal of the man doing the detailing.

Semi-detailed work of rapid character can be carried on with the use of the following instruments: a compass; a rod; a telescopic hand level equipped with stadia wires; and an Abney level or one of the various types of pocket transit provided with a scale to read per cent. slopes. Distances, directions, and elevations can thus be determined with sufficient accuracy to allow of making a roughly sketched contour map. The work required is such as to occupy more time than is needed for general reconnaissance, and demands that the geologist have an assistant; but it is much more rapid than typical detailed mapping; and, where haste is essential, may sometimes be employed with advantage.

DETAILED SURVEY

General Description.—There is no sharp line of demarcation between reconnaissance and detailed work. As the names imply the former has to do with a preliminary, rapid, incomplete examination while the latter is concerned with the careful working out and mapping of the structural conditions in such detail as is essential to the valuation and exploitation of the area, in so far as this is permitted by the evidence. Where the structural conditions are very apparent, a little additional care given to the preliminary examination may be sufficient for the work at hand. Also, at places where there is insufficient data to permit of careful detailing, the two types of examination may be identical as the reconnaissance work may secure all the information available. and thus satisfy, so far as is possible, the requirements of the finished work. All the methods of detailing may be used in reconnaissance work to some extent. Thus, where exposures are poor or dips low, it may be desirable to take the elevations of two or three or more points on an outcrop to determine which way it is dipping.

In certain instances, the finished map is a combination of a detailed structural contour map in those areas in which detailed information is available, and a reconnaissance map, with dips indicated by arrows, in those areas in which outcrops are not sufficiently continuous to allow of structural contour mapping (Fig. 49).

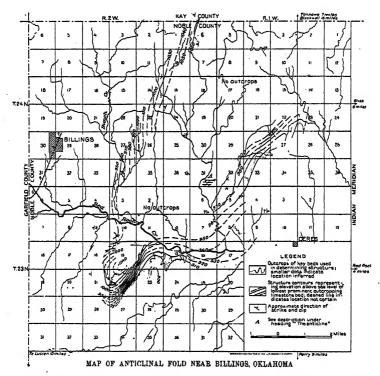


Fig. 49.—Map of anticlinal fold near Billings, Oklahoma, showing combination of detail and reconnaissance mapping. (After U. S. Gool. Survey.)

Detailed work has been carried on in a variety of ways and, as is to be expected, the profession is not entirely in accord as to the relative value of these methods. One is naturally influenced by the methods he has tried and knows best, and the value of each method depends upon the conditions under which the work is to be done and to some extent upon the temperament of the

observer. For convenience of discussion detailing may be divided under two heads; location and elevation.

Location (including direction and distance).—Points may be roughly located by reference to local land marks, by their topographic position if a contour map of the area is available, or by a traverse in which the directions are taken by the use of a pocket compass and the distances by pacing. Such methods may be of value in heavily timbered area and when the work is being plotted on a very small scale. Locations may also be made in open areas by triangulation, that is, by taking the compass bearings from two known points and plotting the lines on the map. Such methods are crude, but there are times when one is compelled to make the best of unfavorable circumstances, and when such methods may be sufficiently accurate, especially as an aid in reconnaissance work.

When mapping is done by the use of a plane table, the direction of a point is taken by sighting on it with an alidade, either open sight or telescopic, and the distance measured by pacing or stadia. The bearing of the line is plotted directly on the map, and the distance scaled off according to the scale determined upon at the beginning of the work. This gives the location of the point. Sighting with an open sight alidade and measuring the distance by pacing are both sufficiently accurate when done by a trained man, but the method is slow and necessitates the securing of elevations by the use of a barometer or a clinometer. It is, however, about the best one-man method of detailing. The method of using the telescopic alidade has been described rather fully in a previous chapter.

In detailed work it is desirable to start at some known point, such as a section corner, and to "tie in" to known points at frequent intervals. There may be occasional instances where it is desirable to start at random and "tie in" on some known point later, but this is not often advisable.

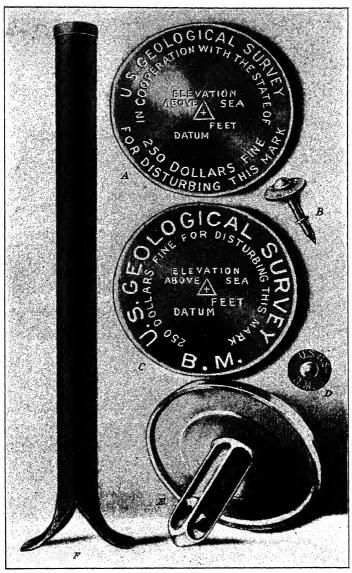
Elevation. Bench Marks.—A bench mark is any point the elevation of which has been determined and which is intended to be used in determining the actual or relative elevations of other

points. They are so indicated and described as to be readily found by the person or persons concerned through the time in which they are to be used. Those established for the use of the public are commonly marked by an inscribed bronze or aluminum tablet (Pl. XI), while those established by a surveyor for his own use during the mapping of a small area often consist of a small pile of rocks. Bench marks thus differ from stations in that the latter term is applied to all points the location or elevation of which is established or assumed and therefore usually with no intent on the part of the locator to visit them again. They are therefore less carefully determined and marked. Any station may become a bench mark providing it can be again located.

The United States Geological Survey, and Coast and Geodetic Survey, together with various State surveys have established bench marks at irregular intervals over most of the United States. Practically all of these refer to mean sea level, *i.e.*, the average height of the water, all stages of the tide being considered. Reference to these possesses the advantage that it gives the actual elevation, and, since they all refer to the same datum plane, one may at times check in on another bench mark and avoid returning to the starting point in order to check his run. It also has the additional value of assisting one in comparing conditions in neighboring areas without the necessity of running a traverse between them.

In many cases, such as the mapping of individual structures, the reference of elevations to sea level is no more advantageous than the determination of relative elevations from a bench mark of assumed elevation. One is then not justified in taking much additional time to establish sea level elevations. Therefore in detailing small isolated areas, especially if far from a bench mark, an assumed elevation for the starting point is used. However, one should carefully locate and describe all bench marks of assumed elevation so that it will be possible either to use them again or to establish their relation to sea level at any later date if it is found desirable to do so.

In mapping large areas the field work may or may not be



Geological survey bench marks. (After U. S. Geol. Survey.)

controlled by previously established bench marks, but in most cases such bench marks are established at convenient points at such distances apart as may be determined by the accuracy attempted. If they are to be used with a telescopic alidade survey, they should be established by a surveying level or an alidade. If to be used for barometric work, they may be established as above or by an aneroid. Where these bench marks are established by other than the one who is to use them, care must be taken to place them at points easily described and found. These may be at road and fence intersections or along a road or a fence, at the highest point of a ridge, or the lowest point of a valley. They should also be clearly marked so as to be perceptible for some distance from any direction. methods have been used. The blazing of a nearby tree or post on three sides is not very satisfactory for the promiscuous use of the axe is likely to be objected to by the land owner, and the implement is burdensome. The best results have been obtained by painting large crosses on three sides of a nearby tree or post at about six feet from the ground, the point at which the elevation was taken being noted by a white dot and arrow, and the elevation or station number painted on a nearby surface. Public surveys usually mark up the correct elevation while private surveys usually record the station number or the elevation in code so that the work cannot be used by a competitor.

Where the work is to be done with an aneroid, numerous bench marks should be established throughout the area, to enable a frequent checking of that instrument. Where the work is carried on with plane table and telescopic alidade, it is rarely necessary to spend time establishing bench marks unless the area to be mapped is large, in which case an occasional bench mark, previously established, facilitates the work.

Method of Determining Elevations.—Aneroid barometers are used rather extensively in detailing certain areas. They are subject to numerous errors and their use is probably justified only under certain special conditions. They have the advantage that they require only one man for their use. When, then, it

becomes absolutely necessary for a man to detail an area without an assistant the aneroid may be used. It can also be used in thick timber, where it is practically impossible to use any other instrument to advantage.

All elevations determined with the aneroid should be recorded on the map, exactly as in work with the alidade, to be described later. The correct locations for plotting elevations are usually determined by pacing and pocket compass, or estimated with reference to the land lines. The same precautions regarding the following of outcrops should be observed as in other types of work. Commonly aneroid elevations should be checked one or more times before permanent recording.

The precise level has occasionally been used in detailed structure mapping, but owing to the large number of set-ups required, and to the fact that it is of no value in determining locations, its use is very slow and not economical.

The transit has also been used in such work. Its principle of use is the same as that of the telescopic alidade, except that notes cannot be plotted in the field, which renders it less valuable for this kind of work. It is far more cumbersome and less useful than the plane table and telescopic alidade.

The telescopic alidade and plane table comprise the most generally satisfactory method of detailed structure mapping, because they take care of determinations both of elevation and location, are rapid and accurate, and allow the plotting of results in the field as the work proceeds. Details of the use of the instrument are given in a preceding chapter.

Preliminary Scouting.—If a preliminary reconnaissance has not been made, or if it has been made by someone other than the man who is to do the detailed work, the first step in detailing an area should be to "scout" the region rapidly to get the general "lay" of the structure, to note where exposures are most numerous, to determine the general magnitude of the structure in order to be able to choose the proper scale and interval to be used, and to plan the work.

Scale and Contour Interval.—For most structures in the Mid-Continent Field, 4 in. to the mile ($\frac{1}{15840}$), is a convenient scale and a 10 ft. interval has been found to be very satisfactory. One inch to one thousand feet is a scale easily plotted, and much used. In very low structures it may more rarely be advisable to use a 5 ft. contour interval, but anything less than that would appear to be a waste of time, since it is probable that errors of nearly that magnitude commonly enter into the field work, chiefly through inability to locate more closely the exact top of the bed on which the observations are being taken. This condition may result from inequalities in deposition, or from later slump. The inch scale ($\frac{1}{162500}$) and 50 ft. or 100 ft. intervals may meet the requirements in more intensely folded regions, like parts of Pennsylvania or Wyoming.

Measuring Detailed Sections.—It may be advisable, before starting actual mapping, to measure one or more detailed sections, in order to learn the character and thickness of the rocks involved, and to determine accurately the intervals between the horizons on which elevations are to be taken. More often the geologist, with this requirement in mind, measures the intervals as favorable points are reached during the regular work of detailing. Points are sought where the horizontal distance between the outcrops of two beds is a minimum, their elevation taken by means of the alidade, and a permanent record thereby made in the notes and on the map.

MAKING THE FIELD MAP

Mapping will usually begin in the easiest part of the area where outcrops are most abundant, that one may become more familiar with the key beds and obtain the intervals before working in the more difficult portions of a region. It may also be found desirable to start on the regional dip side of a structure as that is the least critical part.

Set-ups.—The placing and orientation of the plane table and alidade is usually called a "set-up." In general such points

should be so chosen that the greatest area can be seen from a single location. This necessitates good judgment on the part of the instrument man and for the best results calls for a knowledge on his part of the general plan of work, so that he can choose his set-ups where the greatest extent of outcrop of the given bed can be seen. As a rule such a point will be on a prominent hill top, especially if the key bed outcrops well up on the hillside, but sometimes will be in the center of an open valley, where the outcrop can be seen on both sides. Care should be exercised to avoid the vicinity of trees and brush that may interfere with the line of sight. The choice of poor or good set-ups may very greatly hinder or facilitate the work.

Following the Outcrops.—After it has been determined to start in any given place, the instrument man chooses a set-up . from which he can see some section corner or bench mark from which the start is to be made, and at the same time be in range of as large an area as possible. The geologist, carrying the rod, follows the outcrop of a chosen key bed, and, wherever possible, gives the instrument man as frequent readings as are essential to the degree of detail desired. In order to obtain two components of the dip at right angles to each other, elevations are taken at the ends of points and at the heads of ravines. general it is advisable to take elevations on two horizons, checking their interval frequently, in order to verify the correlation. When as much area has been covered as can be reached from the set-up, the rodman signals turning-point, making the turning-point on the outcrop if convenient to do so, to avoid an extra sight. Turning-point sights should not be as long as those allowable for side-sights, and should be chosen with the position of the next set-up in mind. The instrument man now goes to the place designated, sets up the table at the best point, and backsights on the turning-point to determine the location and height of instrument.

Cautions to be observed by the geologist in following the outcrop are outlined in the preceding chapter. Information to go on the Map.—Three types of information should be recorded, at least in part, on the field sheet. (See sheet of symbols.) These are culture, topography, and structure. Culture, that is the works of man, includes houses, roads, section corners (and frequently property lines), oil and gas wells, pipe lines, tanks, etc. With the exception of section corners and wells, these are usually located approximately by triangulation, the rodman having no part in this work. Wells and land corners should be located exactly. The only topographic feature usually recorded is drainage, the chief value of which is in interpreting structure, but which can be used for location of water supply, and as an aid in checking positions.

Structural information requires the greatest care in recording. All stations, including turning-points, set-ups, and side-sights, should be numbered in the notes, and these numbers should appear at the proper place on the field map. The actual line of sight between all stations should preferably be drawn on the map with solid ruled lines, so that it is possible to see at a glance the location of the stations. Some prefer not to draw in the lines of sight as it makes the appearance of the sheet less neat, but unless they obscure necessary data it is better that they be drawn, as they assist the geologist in studying the map. In general the actual elevations of the stations are penciled on the map under the proper station number. It is less confusing if the elevations of points not on outcrops be omitted from the map. In any case, whether elevations are recorded or not, the instrument man should keep his computations up to date, so that the geologist may at any time compare the elevations of any points. A few geologists prefer not to have elevations recorded in the field, for fear of information getting into the hands of competitors.

The actual trace of all outcrops of key beds should be drawn on the map. If there are several such, they may be differentiated by lines consisting of different combinations of dots and dashes.

In order that a map shall not become too blurred or mussed,

it is good practice for the instrument man each night, or at least at rather frequent intervals, to ink in all information which is known to be correct. Some prefer to use a different color of ink for each feature, but colored inks fade badly on long exposures to the sun, so that it is usually preferable to use only black, differentiating the outcrops by various types of lines.

The drawing of structural contours can best be done while the geologist has clearly in mind the details of all stations, the visible dips and the topography; and should never be delayed more than a few days.

Closure.—It is good practice to "check in" as frequently as convenient, to see that no errors have been made. A traverse may be closed upon itself or upon some point of known position and elevation, but the former is more often the procedure. In cases where there is a suspicion that the instrument man is falsifying his record to cause a proper closure, the geologist may easily test the matter by "shooting him off," i.e., sighting him on some point other than that on which he is supposed to close, either in elevation or distance. This discrepancy may be closely estimated and if the instrument man makes a perfect closure his falsification is easily detected. However humiliating it may seem to be distrusted, the instrument man should hardly resent such a test, for his work should be reasonably correct and when he has proved his ability he will not be so tested.

It is sometimes possible to determine the elevation of some widely visible point, such as the top of a derrick, windmill or house, and make frequent approximate checks by sighting on it from various points. (See also pp. 127–128.)

Errors in reading plus for minus and minus for plus angles, and other larger blunders in computations can usually be caught at once by the geologist, if he is watching as he should, the general lay of the structure. For this reason if for no other, the instrument man should keep all his computations strictly up to the minute.

The geologist should also frequently check intervals, where possible, to verify his correlations.

KEEPING OF NOTES

Instrument Man's Notes.—The form of notes kept by the instrument man varies but little, the data being always the same. It is good practice to put down all observations as taken and make the computation, even if small, afterwards. If this is done all errors of computation can be found and corrected.

Two sample pages of notes, showing approved forms are given herewith. The first is a form used by the United States Geological Survey and represents a method of keeping notes when using the Beaman stadia arc; the second is a form used by the authors and represents a method of keeping notes when using the gradienter screw or the stepping method. Both forms are equally applicable for all methods of determining elevation, the vertical angles, however measured, being placed in the same column and never confused with each other. The Beaman stadia arc angles are comparatively large numbers consisting always of two figures; the vertical arc readings are recorded as degrees and minutes; the drum and stepping angles by a small number with a plus or minus sign before it.

In the authors' form of notes (p. 192), the first column gives the character of the station and its number. The circles before the figures 1, 3, and 8 show that these stations were turning-

A Form of Notes for Use with Beaman Stadia Arc, as Used by United States Geological Survey (After W. & L. E. Gurley)

Stadia arc reading B.S. F.S.		Distance	Product	Rod correction	Difference of elevation	Elevation	Station
D.D.			<u> </u>				
						654.7	B.M.
54		4.2	- 16.8	+ 8.2	- 8.6	646.1	H.I.
	48	6.3	- 12.6	-4.9	-17.5	628.6	T.P.
44		9.2	+ 55.2	+4.3	+59.5	688.1	H.I.
	57	15.8	+110.6	-13.8	+96.8	784.9	T.P.
50		8.4		+6.7	+6.7	791.6	H.I.
}	50	5.6		- 9.8	- 9.8	781.8	T.P.
							l

Date, Jan. 25, 1918. Location, Osage Co., Okla.

Sample from Instrument Man's Notes
1918. Rodman, R. N. Barnett.
2 Co., Okla. Instrument man, O. C. Bailey.

Sta.	Dist.	V.A.	Rod.	D.E.	H.I.	Elev.	Bed	Remarks
⊙1						682.0	••	U. S. G. S. B. M., NW. Cor. 22–22–10.
$\Delta 2$	1100	+1	3.6	- 7.4	674.6			
⊙3	1400	-2	7.8	-35.8		638.8	10	
$\Delta 4$	1350	-1	5.0	+18.5	657.3		9	-4 ft. for crop.
5	8.5×2 1700	-1	6.5	-23.5		634.0	10	
6	9.8×2 1960	-1	10.0	-29.6	,	628.0	10	χ.
7	10×2 2000	-1	L8.0 18.0	-38.0		619.0	10	
⊙8	9×2 1800	+2	6.8	+29.2		686.6	11	

points; the triangles before the numbers 2 and 4, that they were instrument stations. All stations including instrument stations, are numbered consecutively as taken. Some prefer to designate the instrument stations or set-ups by letters and the other points by numbers. Thus, the stations taken from the first set-up would be numbered A_1 , A_2 , A_3 , etc., and those from the second, B_1 , B_2 , B_3 , etc. Some employ even more complicated systems.

The second column shows distance. Some prefer the heading "S.I." (stadia intercept), but inasmuch as all distances are not determined by means of the stadia, the heading "Distance" is preferred. Note that when half-stadia intercepts were read, as in Nos. 5, 6, 7 and 8, both the half and the full intercepts are recorded. It is rarely, if ever, necessary to use a column for corrected distance. Usually angles of less than 6° need not be corrected for horizontal distance, and greater angles are very rare in petroleum field work. In such rare cases the correct horizontal distance may be entered in the same square as the approximate distance.

In the third column, marked "V.A.," for vertical angle, are recorded all angular measurements for securing vertical distance, whether taken in degrees, divisions of the Beaman stadia arc, or rotations of the gradienter screw. Unless the number itself shows it, they should be preceded by a suitable sign, such as + or -, to show whether the station sighted upon is higher or lower than the instrument (H.I.).

The fourth column, marked "Rod," is for elevation rod readings. At the seventh station the rod reading of the lower stadia wire was used and that of the horizontal wire computed. Some prefer to use two columns for rod readings, one for foresights and one for backsights.

The fifth column, marked "D.E." (difference in elevation), is for the computed difference in elevation between the axis of the telescope (H.I.) and the point on which the rod was held. Its chief value lies in the fact that it furnishes an intermediate stopping point in the calculations.

The sixth column, marked "H.I.," is the height of the axis of the telescope. As the "H.I." enters into all computations, it is made conspicuous by giving it a separate column.

The seventh column, marked "Elev.," is the computed elevation of the point upon which the rod was held.

The eighth column, marked "Bed," is for the recording of the bed number, each horizon traced being given a distinctive number or letter, so that the records will show upon which stratum each elevation was taken. It is believed that the use of numbers for beds is more flexible than the use of letters or names. If the first bed is numbered 10, the next one above 11, the first one below 9, etc., and it is then desired to use a bed between the ones numbered 10 and 11, it may be called 10.5. Numbers can be added indefinitely at any point but will always show the relative position of all the beds used.

The ninth column, marked "Remarks," is for recording any desirable information concerning the sight. This includes description of bench marks, stations, corrections for elevation and distance as reported to the instrument man by the rodman, and in fact everything essential not otherwise provided for.

The headings are arranged from left to right in the order in which the observations and computations are usually made.

Geologist's Notes.—The geologist must be able to report to the instrument man, whenever convenient, which bed, if any, each sight was taken upon. If notes are kept, they will consist chiefly of such data as measured sections, intervals, and thickness and character of key beds. In general it is best to enter all essential information under "Remarks" in the instrument man's notes, in order that all the information may be kept together. In reconnaissance work, especially in new districts, complete notes should be taken, essentially as complete as would be taken in a general reconnaissance for an areal geology report.

THE FINISHED MAP

Reduction of Elevations.—If all elevations are taken on a single key bed, the contours may be drawn at once through points of equal elevation. If more than one key bed has been used, it will be necessary to reduce the observations to a common datum plane. It is first decided what bed shall be used as the datum to which the structural contours are to be referred. As a rule it makes little difference what bed is chosen unless it is desired to compare this given structure with others in adjacent regions, in which case it is almost necessary to use a common datum plane for the entire area. Labor is eliminated if that horizon is chosen on which the largest number of elevations were taken directly in the field; and this will usually be that horizon which outcrops best, is exposed over the largest area, and has the most constant characteristics. If the area is large, it not infrequently happens that the datum horizon is deeply buried in some places and removed by erosion in others. In the case of those elevations taken on beds lower than the chosen reference bed, the reduction is made by adding the measured or computed interval between them. In case of elevations on members above the datum horizon, the interval is subtracted.

The determination of these intervals is of the utmost impor-

tance and constitutes a frequent source of error with beginners. They are in part measured in the field and in part computed from the field data. It should be clear that the nearer the outcrops of the two beds are to each other horizontally, the more accurately the interval can be measured as this eliminates change in elevation due to dip. The most favorable case is one in which two beds of low dips are exposed on a steep hillside, one below the other, in which case the difference of elevation is the interval. Such cases rarely occur. Where the outcrops are more widely separated, one theoretically has the choice of two methods to avoid changes in elevation due to dip. One is to choose two points of known elevation, one on each bed, and on the same line of strike, whereupon their difference in elevation is the desired interval. The other method is to choose three points of known elevation, two of which are on one bed and one on the other in the same line of dip. Then assuming the dip as determined by the two elevations on one bed to be constant, the elevation of a point on this bed directly under or over the third point is computed. The difference in elevation between this and the third point is the interval.

Naturally, two points in the same line of strike, or three points fairly close together and in the same line of dip are seldom obtained, both because the line of strike changes, and because of the difficulty in determining strike. It may therefore require considerable ingenuity to obtain satisfactory intervals. Often trial intervals taken at different points agree so closely that their average may be used. Where much difficulty is experienced, the best approximation may be obtained by contouring each stratum separately about the points to be used. Then by extending the contouring with additional lines of such shape and spacing as may be indicated by those already drawn, the two horizons are brought together until some point is covered by both sets. The difference in the value of the two sets for this point is the interval. This method is based on the assumption

¹If the angle of dip is large this point should be defined by a lineperpendicular to the beds, passing through the third point.

that the dip between the points is constant and equal to the observed dip in the vicinity. In the use of either method, an area should be chosen in which the dip and strike are as nearly constant as can be found, and it is often advisable to check one method by the other.

After the interval has been determined and the elevations corrected thereby, it is good practice to put the corrected elevations in ink on the field sheet, in parentheses, below the observed elevations so they will stand out clearly. The bed with only one set of elevations is the datum horizon.

In making the above corrections care must be used to apply the proper variation, if the interval is not constant over the area mapped. This variation is not infrequently very marked and falure to take it into account in reducing to common datum might seriously impair the value of the work. Variations of this type are often plotted by means of a convergence sheet, prepared on transparent paper, on the same scale as the structural contour map. The convergence sheet, or isochore chart, has marked upon it all observed data concerning the interval between the bed on which observations were taken and the final datum horizon. Using this data, lines are drawn through points of equal interval on the isochore chart. This chart is then laid on the structural map, and shows the interval to be used at any desired point. This plan is sometimes used for completing field sheets, in cases in which elevations are taken on numerous horizons, but it is in more general use for plotting structural contours on a producing sand from a combination of well data and surface observations.

Contouring.—After these elevations are all reduced to terms of the datum horizon, the contours are drawn and inked in. Structure contouring preceeds cautiously, the easiest part of each line and the easiest part of the structure being first shown. These by their spacing and their shape indicate the position that will be occupied by the adjacent lines in so far as it is consistent with the elevations.

The contour lines are started at the points where the dip is the

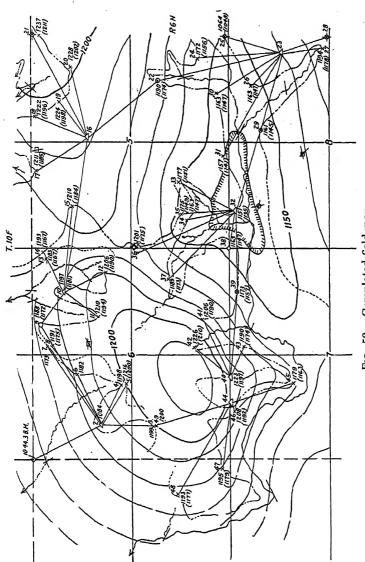


Fig. 50.—Completed field map.

most regular, where the elevations are the most numerous and where the geologist has a good knowledge of conditions from his field observations.

The map then first consists of a number of short discontinuous lines which, as they are added to and extended, build up into the finished map. In so far as permitted by elevations and observed dips, the curvature and spacing of the contours are then adjusted to show such a surface of uniformly changing curvature as one would expect to be formed by such folding.

In case very sharp irregularities are noted in the trace of the contours, the data should be examined closely for errors, because, except as a result of faulting, the curves of folds are likely to be rather smooth and gentle. A single inconsistent observation not corresponding with any structural feature noted in the field, will usually be discarded. If several such occur, it is usually best to return to the area and try to discover the cause. If the computations have been kept up to date, and always entered on the map as fast as completed, such inconsistent elevations should be noted in the field as the work proceeds. In fact, this is the chief reason for insisting that an instrument man keep his computations up to date. Figure 50 illustrates a completed field map.

The Tracing.—The most essential features on the tracing or blue print that is to be submitted to the client are the structural contours and the property lines, and these should be emphasized on the final copy by heavy line drawings. Roads and houses, dry holes, oil and gas wells, pipe lines, and tankage may be entered when present, as may also the outcrops of beds on which elevations were taken. In so far as this information has been obtained, it should be included in the tracing providing the legibility of more important data is not thereby impaired. Actually observed elevations are usually not entered on the final map, but may be used if they do not make the map too crowded.

THE FINAL REPORT

The character of the report will vary with the detailed or reconnaissance nature of the field work, with the amount of development in the area, and with the character of the parties to whom the report is to be submitted, so that a definite outline can hardly be given. A few of the more important topics are mentioned below.

Location.—In all cases the exact location of the lands should be given, in terms used by the land surveys, usually section, township, and range. In unsurveyed territory in the public land states areas should be described as closely as possible with reference to natural features, so there can be no possibility of mistaking the locality if it is decided to file on the lands.

Topography.—As a rule, the topography of the area should be indicated briefly, particularly in regions not familiar to the persons for whom the report is made, as it has a distinct bearing on ease of accessibility, on transportation and pipe line problems, and on water supply. In some cases topography will influence location by determining differences in depth of drilling, but only when the location which is most favorable topographically is also quite as favorable as any other structurally.

Stratigraphy.—As a rule, the age and character of the rocks, and frequently the local formation names, should be given. Also a list of the known or probable oil and gas sands with probable depths and thicknesses.

Structure.—The map should show and the report should include the exact location of all anticlines, terraces, faults, or other structural features that might influence accumulation; the general shape, amount of closure, and position and direction of crest of all anticlines; the contour interval; the datum plane; and the direction and amount of displacement of faults, together with their probable effect on accumulation. The other horizons on which observations were taken and the reduction intervals are often described.

Oil and Gas Sands.—The number, names, depth, thickness, and character of oil and gas sands should be given, so far as possible, with any information available as to water condition. In developed areas, this information can be given in much detail. In wildcat areas, very little is usually known of the sands, but

the possibilities should be set forth as clearly as the information will permit.

Development.—In reporting on developed properties, careful attention should be paid to the number, depth, and character of producing wells, with as many logs as can be secured. Initial production, settled production, shooting, water conditions, time and rate of pumping, rate of decline, and similar data are of the greatest importance. Dry holes are often cleverly concealed on the ground, but should be sought for carefully and their depth and location given. Tankage and pipe line facilities should be set forth.

Fuel.—Character and cost of fuel for drilling should be considered, especially in wildcat territory. Gas, oil, coal, and wood all serve in various localities. In areas far from railroad, particularly in the arid parts of the west, fuel is a serious problem. Kind of fuel, distance to be hauled, available amount, and cost delivered should be determined.

Water Supply.—Proximity of water for drilling is important, and the amount available, its permanence, and the distance it must be hauled or pumped should be indicated.

Transportation.—The name of railroads, distance from railroad, character of public roads, and relief of country are important factors, and the possible locations for pipe lines should be considered.

Labor and Local Supplies.—In remote parts of Wyoming, Utah, and similarly situated states, the question of local labor and local supplies is a serious one, and where unusual scarcity or high prices prevail, mention should be made of such conditions.

Recommendations.—Recommendations include many sets of conditions. Of fundamental importance is the statement of the possibility of the presence of oil or gas. Advice to lease, purchase, or file will often include also limitations as to advisable expenditure. Advice to drill will usually include the making of a location. All recommendations should recognize as nearly as possible the elements of chance in the proposed venture, together with the probable reward if successful.

A geologist is undoubtedly justified in considering the character of his client in determining to advise favorably or unfavorably in a given case. It is certainly proper to advise risks for a large concern, which would not be justified for a party with limited means, who might become bankrupt through one or two failures.

GLOSSARY1

Aberration-is of two types.

- 1. White light, in passing through a lens (q v), has its constituent colors refracted (q.v) unequally, each color being brought to a focus at a different point. This is chromatic aberration. See index.
- 2. Rays of light which pass through the edges of a spherical lens are not focused at the same point as those passing through the center. This is spherical aberration. See index.

Abney level—a hand level (q.v.) with clinometer (q.v.) attachment, invented by Captain Abney, of the British Army. See index.

Absolute humidity—see humidity.

Accumulation—here used to indicate that process by which oil and gas within the ground migrate into the more porous formations and there collect in quantity.

Acline—beds without dip; unfolded; in a horizontal position.

Adjustment of instruments—the act of correcting an instrument that reads incorrectly. See index.

Aeolian-see eolian.

Agglomerates—fragmental igneous (q.v.) rocks, such as tuffs (q.v.) and volcanic breccias (q.v.), that have been produced by violent explosive eruptions. The term is also used for any fragmental rock which has been cemented by lava (q.v.). See also pyroclastic.

Agonic line—the line of no magnetic declination (q.v.); the line passing through all points at which the magnetic needle points to the true north. See also isogonic chart.

Algonkian—the second period of the Proterozoic (q.v.), or pre-Cambrian (q.v.) era. The rocks are dominantly sedimentary, but in many places are cut by large igneous intrusions (q.v.), and, as a rule, are much folded, faulted, and metamorphosed (q.v.). Oil and gas have not been found in commercial quantities in Algonkian rocks.

Alidades-are of two types.

- 1. The open sight or ruler alidade, used simply to plot bearings (q.v.) on an oriented (q.v.) table.
- ¹ The letters (q.v.) indicate a cross reference to the word after which they appear.

2. The telescopic alidade is used in the same way to plot bearings, but as it carries a telescope, is also used to determine distance and elevation.

See plane table, transit, Beaman stadia arc, vertical angle, stadia, etc. Also see index.

Alluvium—river borne sediments, such as the gravels, sands, and silts of flood plains.

Aneroid—a barometer (q.v.) used to measure atmospheric pressure (q.v.) by means of a vacuum chamber, the variations of which are shown by means of a pointer and dial. See index.

Angular unconformity—an unconformity (q.v.) in which the beds below the unconformable contact had undergone folding and erosion before the upper beds were deposited. The lower beds are therefore the more folded and are not parallel to those above. See index.

Antecedent stream—a stream which has held its course across some uplift, such as a fold (q.v.) or fault (q.v.), cutting down as fast as the uplift took place, and not being diverted. It antedates the structure which it crosses.

Anticlinal mountains and valleys—mountains and valleys that occupy the sites of anticlines. See also synclinal mountains and valleys.

Anticline—an upfold or arch in the rocks. As a rule the beds dip outward in two or more directions from the crest. See index.

Anticlinorium—a major anticline, on the flanks of which are superimposed smaller synclines (q.v.) and anticlines; a composite fold (q.v.).

Apparent dip—If dipping beds are seen in any section other than one at right angles to their strike (q.v.), the observed dip (q.v.) is less than the true dip and is not in the direction of the latter. Such a condition gives apparent dip. See index.

Archean—a period of the Proterozoic (q.v.) or pre-Cambrian (q.v.) era; the oldest known rocks. Dominantly igneous (q.v.), but containing small amounts of highly metamorphosed (q.v.) sediments. Do not yield oil or gas in paying quantities.

Arkose—a highly feldspathic sand or sandstone; a rock which has resulted from the incomplete weathering of an acid igneous (q.v.) rock; such as a granite (q.v.).

Arrested anticline—a term used by some to describe what is usually called a terrace (q,v_*) .

Asphalt—a natural solid, or viscous mixture of partially oxidized hydrocarbons (q.v.). Usually dark brown or black in color, melts at 90° to 100°F., and is to a large extent soluble in oil of turpentine, ether, or alcohol. Occurs as seeps (q.v.), springs, lakes, and as impregnations in rocks.

Asphaltic-containing, or consisting of asphalt.

Asphalt-base petroleum—Asphalt-base petroleums are those which yield an asphalt residue on evaporation or distillation as contrasted with those that yield paraffin (q.v.).

Asphalt rock—a rock impregnated with asphalt. Usually the result of the evaporation of the lighter constituents of petroleum (q.v.).

Asymmetrical fold—any fold (q.v.) the limbs of which do not dip at equal

angles in opposite directions.

Axis of a fold—a line determined by the intersection of the two limbs of a fold (q.v.) on any given bed at crest (q.v.) or trough (q.v.). A line defined by the intersection of any bed and a plane bisecting the angle between the limbs.

Azimuth—an arc in a horizontal plane; the angle any course of a traverse (q.v.) makes with the meridian as measured clockwise, usually from the south

Back-lash—lost motion in working parts of an instrument resulting from mechanical wear of the parts or imperfections in workmanship. See index.

Backsight—a sight upon a known point to determine the position or elevation of the instrument. See also set-up, foresight, and turning-point.

Barograph—a self-recording barometer which traces on a roll of paper a

graph of the pressure variations.

Barometer—an instrument for recording air pressure, and since air pressure varies with elevation, also used to determine elevations. There are two general types, the mercurial (q.v.) and the aneroid (q.v.) barometers.

Baumé System—Density of oil is usually measured in degrees Baumé. The instrument used was invented by a French chemist Baumé, and consists of a sealed hollow tube with standardized graduations, which is floated in the oil. The heavier the oil the less distance it sinks and the lower the reading and vice versa. See specific gravity.

Beaman stadia arc—a vertical arc graduated in divisions representing simple whole numbers of the function $\frac{1}{2}\sin 2v$ of the vertical angle. See

index

Bearing—the direction of a line as referred to the cardinal points of the compass, such as N. 10° E., or S. 45° W.

Bedrock—solid rock, or outcrop, as contrasted with soil, float (q.v.), etc.

Beds—rock layers separated by planes of parting called bedding planes. In common usage, bed is often incorrectly used as a synonym of stratum (q.v.). See also formation and member.

Bench mark—a point of known elevation so marked that it can be again

found and used. See index.

Binocular hand level—a hand level with two sighting tubes. See index. Bitumen—a mixture of native hydrocarbons, such as natural gas (q.v.), petroleum (q.v.), asphalt (q.v.), and the like.

Bitumenous shale—a shale impregnated with bitumenous matters. See

also oil shale.

Brea—soil impregnated with the heavier substances left from evaporation of petroleum seeps (q.v.).

"Break-over"—a term used locally in certain regions to indicate a rounded crest which is both structurally and topographically high.

"Breaks"—(1) a term applied locally to small faults; (2) also applied locally to soft layers within hard ones, such as "shale-breaks;" (3) also used to indicate any sudden change in topography, as from a plain to a hilly country, viz., the Breaks of Missouri River.

Breccia—a rock consisting of angular rock fragments, cemented together. It often consists of the crushed rock along a fault (q,v).

Brunton—a type of compass (q.v.) provided with clinometer (q.v.) and devices for reading vertical angles (q.v.); commonly called a "pocket transit." See index.

Bubble-tube—a tube partially filled with a liquid in which is a bubble. Used for levelling. See index.

Bull's-eye level—a level, the inner upper surface of whose bubble-container is ground to a sphere of large radius. See index.

Calibrate—to determine the accuracy of the readings of an instrument.

Cambrian—the earliest period of the Paleozoic (q.v.) era. The rocks of this period are almost wholly sedimentary (q.v.) and largely marine (q.v.) in the United States. Small quantities of gas are reported from Cambrian beds, but neither oil nor gas in paying quantities has ever been found.

Cap rock—the more impervious cover (q.v.) found above a porous oil or gas bearing bed.

Carbonaceous—containing carbon, usually of organic origin, such as shales with plant remains.

Carbon dioxide—a colorless and odorless gas of the composition, CO_2 . It escapes from the earth in various localities, and should not be confused with "natural gas" (q.v.).

Carboniferous period—the latest period of the Paleozoic (q.v.) era, divided into the Mississippian (q.v.), Pennsylvanian (q.v.) and Permian (q.v.) epochs. Formations of the Pennsylvanian and of the Mississippian produce oil and gas in commercial quantities, and to some extent, those of the Permian.

Cement—the binding materials of sedimentary rocks (q.v.), especially sandstones (q.v.). Usually consists of calcium carbonate, silica, or iron oxide.

Cenozoic era—the latest era of geologic time, divided into the Tertiary (q.v.) and Quaternary (q.v.) periods.

Checker boarding—the division of property in such a way that two parties take alternating parcels of land.

Chert—a compact, very fine-grained rock consisting of silica (SiO₂) with varying proportions of water and impurities. The porosity of chert is very low. Also called flint.

Chromatic aberration—see aberration.

Clay—a fine grained material, consisting chiefly of kaolin mixed with fragments and particles of other minerals, possessing plasticity when wet and becoming hard when dry.

Clinometer—an instrument for measuring the dip of rock beds or topographic slopes. See index.

Closed pressure—the pressure on a gas well that has been closed long enough to attain a maximum. The time is usually about 24 hours, but is sometimes several days. The well must stay closed until the pressure does not increase more rapidly than 1 per cent. in 10 minutes, before the pressure is gauged. See open pressure.

Closure—(1) the vertical deformation (q.v.) of a fold, or the vertical distance between the anticlinal crest and the point of drainage. An anticlinal fold that closes six ten-foot structural contours (q.v.) has over 50 and less than 70 ft. of closure; (2) in instrument work, a term used to indicate "checking in" or closing a circuit, by checking on some known point. See traverse. Also see index.

Coal oil—a term variously applied to products of distillation of coal; less correctly used for crude petroleum and for kerosene.

Collimation, line of—the line of sight of the telescope of a surveying instrument, as defined by the axis of the objective (q.v.) and the intersection of the cross-wires (q.v.), when they are in perfect alignment. See index.

Compass—a compass consists essentially of a magnetized needle, mounted on a pivot, and free to swing in a horizontal plane. It is usually pivoted at the center of a circle graduated to degrees, and is used for determining directions. See in ex.

Composite fold—a major fold (q.v.) upon which have been superimposed minor folds.

Concretions—aggregates of mineral matter, usually rounded, and often of concentric structure, which have grown up about some nucleus.

Conformity—continuous sequence of beds, without break, as contrasted with unconformity (q.v.).

Conglomerate—also called pudding stone. A rock made up of worn and rounded pebbles of other rocks, cemented together; a consolidated gravel.

Consequent stream—a stream which originates on a newly upraised surface, and which takes the particular course it does, as a result of the slope of the newly risen land.

Contact—the plane along which two strata (q.v.) or formations (q.v.) are in contact.

Contemporaneous erosion—slight local erosion which goes on while elsewhere deposition is continuous. See also unconformity.

Continental deposits—deposits laid down on land by rivers, wind, glaciers, etc., in contrast to sediments laid down in the ocean. See also terrestrial deposits and marine deposits.

Contours—Contours are of two types, topographic and structural. Topographic contours are imaginary lines on the surface of the ground, drawn at regular intervals through points of equal elevation. Structural contours are such lines on the surface (not erosion surface) of a given bed, through points of equal elevation. Topographic contours show the configuration of the land surface, structural contours the configuration of the rock folds. The contour interval is the difference in elevation as represented by two adjacent contour lines. See structural contour and isobath. See also index.

Convergence—Owing to the thickening and thinning of intervening beds, as a result of unequal deposition, the vertical distance, or interval, between certain beds may change sufficiently to have considerable influence on the plotting of structural contour lines. This variation of interval is known as convergence. See isobath, isochore, and iso-pachous lines. See also index.

Copperas dirt-see "sour dirt."

Correlation—the process of determining the equivalency or non-equivalency of beds in separated outcrops. See also stratigraphy. See index.

Cover—the impervious (q.v.) layer overlying an oil or gas sand, which prevents the upward escape of the oil or gas.

Creep—the slow movement of soil and loose rock down a slope under the combined influence of gravity, frost, and ground water. The edges of rock beds which have suffered creep may appear to show considerable dips.

Crest—the highest part of an anticline (q.v.), or the line (the point in the case of a dome) from which the beds dip outward. See also trough and syncline.

Cretaceous period—the latest period of the Mesozoic (q.v.) era. In the United States, Cretaceous rocks are chiefly sedimentary (q.v.), in part marine (q.v.) and in part terrestrial (q.v.). They yield valuable quantities of coal, oil, and gas.

Crop—a local abbreviation of the word outcrop (q.v.).

Cross bedding—also known as false bedding. Stratification inclined to the true bedding and often confused with the latter. Characteristic of sandstones.

Cross-wires or hairs—the wires or hairs crossing at right angles in microscopes and surveying telescopes, in the exact line of the optic center of the instrument. See index.

"Crude" or crude oil—the natural petroleum, unrefined, as it issues from the ground.

Cuesta—an asymmetrical ridge, the gentler slope of which is controlled by, and is parallel to, the dip of a hard layer of rock and is known as the dip slope (q.v.). The other and steeper slope, caused by undermining and sapping (q.v.), is known as the escarpment (q.v.) slope. See index.

Cuttings—the rock particles bailed from a drilled well.

Datum horizon—any horizon used as a reference for elevations. For most topographic work the datum plane is mean sea level. In structural mapping, the bed, or horizon, to which all elevations are finally reduced is called the datum horizon, or key bed (q.v.). See index.

Declination—the variation between the magnetic and the true north.

Decline—the decrease in yield of an oil or gas well. The first yield is called the "flush" (q.v.) production. For a while the decline is rapid, becoming more steady until "settled" (q.v.) production is reached. Decline curves are curves in which yield is plotted against time, showing graphically the change in rate of production

Deformation—the result of folding (q.v.) or faulting (q.v.).

Degradation—erosion or wearing away of the land surface.

Denudation—the general lowering of the land surface through erosion.

Deposition—the act of depositing; settling out. In geology, the laying down of sediments (q.v.); sedimentation.

Desiccation—the drying out of sediments; loss of water by drying, with consequent shrinkage.

Detailed work—the making of a thorough, as contrasted with a hasty, examination of an area. Detailing usually involves the making of a structural contour (q.v.) map. See also reconnaissance. See index.

Development—any work which actively looks toward bringing in production, such as erecting rigs, building tankage, drilling wells, etc.

Devonian period—the fourth period of the Paleozoic (q.v.) era, preceded by the Silurian (q.v.) and followed by the Carboniferous (q.v.). Devonian rocks in the United States are chiefly marine (q.v.) sediments, though terrestrial (q.v.) beds are extensively developed in the northeast. Considerable oil and gas are yielded by Devonian formations in eastern United States.

Diatoms—microscopic plants that secrete silicious material. Their accumulation produces diatomaceous earth. It has been suggested that a portion, at least, of the Californian oils have resulted from the organic matter of diatoms.

Dike—a tabular mass of igneous (q.v.) rock filling or intruded along a fracture in other rocks.

Dip—the maximum angle of inclination, at a given point, between the dipping bed, or plane, and the horizontal. This maximum angle is necessarily at right angles to the strike (q.v.).

Dip slope—a slope which is parallel to, and controlled by, the surface of a hard layer of dipping rock. See also cuesta and escarpment. See index.

Dip valley—a valley trending in the direction of the general rock dip of the region. Also known as a transverse (q.v.), or crosswise valley, in contrast with a strike valley (q.v.).

Disconformity—a term used in varying senses for certain types of unconformities (q.v.), but generally to describe those in which the beds below and above the unconformable contact are parallel, that is the unconformity is not angular (q.v.). Others employ it to describe a stratigraphic break which results from non-deposition, with no erosion whatever.

Dislocations—another term for faults (q.v.).

Displacement—a term used to describe fault (q.v.) movement, and variously defined. Concensus of opinion seems to be that total displacement shall be defined as the distance, measured in the fault plane, between points in opposite walls that were formerly adjacent. Apparent displacement, or simply displacement, is then generally used for the projection of the total displacement onto a vertical plane, normal to the strike of the fault. See also throw, heave, etc.

Dissected—cut up by valleys, carved by erosion.

Dolomites—magnesian limestones (q.v.) with varying per cents of magnesium carbonate.

Dome—a special type of anticline (q.v.) approximately circular or elliptical in plan, the beds dipping outward from a central point. See index.

Downthrow side—a term used to describe the apparent relative movement of the walls of a fault (q.v.). The side that appears to have gone down with respect to the other is called the downthrow side; the side that appears to have gone up is said to be upthrow.

Drainage—the network of streams in a region.

Drainage point—see spilling point.

Drift—glacial (q.v.) debris.

Drum-see gradienter screw.

Dry hole—somewhat loosely used in oil work, but in general any well that does not produce oil or gas in commercial quantity. A dry hole may flow water, or gas, or may even yield some oil to the pump.

Dry natural gas—a gas that does not contain any considerable amount of easily separated gasoline.

Duster—a dry hole.

"Easts" or east dips—a term used in the Mid-Continent Field to contrast with the general, or regional, dip to the west. Dips in an east direction together with the regional west make up anticlines. Hence, in this field the term is much used. See regional dip, west dip, etc. See index.

Echelon folds—folds that are in a zone rather than a line so that the end of one may overlap the end of another.

En echelon—see echelon.

Eocene epoch—the earliest epoch of the Tertiary (q.v.) period. In the United States, Eocene rocks are found on the Coastal Plain where they are both marine (q.v.) and terrestrial sediments; in the Rocky Mountains, where they are terrestrial (q.v.) with coal beds, and are interbedded in places with

lavas; and on the Pacific Coast, where they are both marine and terrestrial, and yield coal. A portion of the California and Texas oil production is said to come from Eocene beds.

Eolian deposits—wind-deposited sediments, such as loess and dune sand. Epoch—a unit of geologic time, one of the divisions of a period, as the Eocene (q.v.) epoch of the Tertiary (q.v.) period, the Pennsylvanian (q.v.) epoch of the Carboniferous (q.v.) period.

Era—the largest unit of geologic time. Following United States Geological Survey usage, the eras are Proterozoic (q.v.), Paleozoic (q.v.), Mesozoic (q.v.), and Cenozoic (q.v.). They are subdivided into periods (q.v.).

Erect fold—a fold in which the axial plane (q.v.), or plane bisecting the angle between the two flanks, is vertical, or practically so.

Erosion—the general wearing away of the land by wind, running water and other agencies.

Escarpment—a more or less continuous line of cliffs or steep slopes facing in one general direction and due to erosion or faulting. The abbreviated form scarp (q.v.) is sometimes used as a synonym, but is more commonly limited to cliffs produced by faulting (q.v.). See index.

Exposures—bare or uncovered rock ledges. See outcrop.

Extrusives—igneous (q.v.) rocks that have forced their way out at the surface. Common types are lava flows (q.v.) and tuffs (q.v.) [consolidated volcanic ash (q.v.)].

False bedding-see cross bedding.

False dip—cross-bedding or stratification at an angle to the true bedding. See also apparent dip.

Fault—a fracture cutting across the rocks, along which there has been a relative slipping of the walls. See displacement, throw, heave. See also index.

Fauna—the assemblage of animal forms (either modern or fossil) living in a given place at a given time, as for example the Tertiary fauna of the Rocky Mountains. See also flora.

Fiducial plate and edge—the base-plate of a telescopic alidade (q.v.), and its bevelled edge. See index.

Field work—outdoor work, such as reconnaissance (q.v.) and detailed mapping (q.v.), as contrasted with office work, such as drafting finished maps, writing reports, and the like.

Flint—a variety of chert (q.v.).

Float—loose fragments of rock, bowlders, pebbles, and smaller particles; as contrasted with outcrop (q.v.) or bedrock (q.v.). See index.

Flooding—the drowning out of a well, by water, often resulting from drilling too deeply into the sand.

Flora—the assemblage of plants, either modern or fossil, living in a given region at a given time. See also fauna.

Flowing well—a well from which oil or water flows without pumping.

Flush production—the amount of oil first produced by a well, as contrasted with the later smaller and more uniform yield, known as settled production (q.v.).

Fold—a flexure or bend in the rocks.

Folding—bending or warping of the rocks, the process that forms anticlines (q.v.) and synclines (q.v.).

Foot wall—a term used to describe the side that lies below an inclined vein or fault (q.v.), as contrasted with the hanging wall, which lies above it.

Foresights—all sights by which the location or elevation of points as related to the instrument are obtained, the elevation and position of the latter having been first determined, usually, by a "backsight" (q.v.). See index.

Formation—a unit of stratified rocks, sometimes simple, sometimes complex, which is of sufficient importance to map separately. Subdivisions of formations, not mapped separately, but given a separate description are termed members.

Fossils—evidences of animal or plant life in the rocks, such as petrified shells, skeletons, leaf and fern imprints, animal footprints, and the like. It is chiefly by the aid of fossils that the age of rocks is determined. See correlation and stratigraphic correlation. See index.

Fusulina—a small marine fossil, about the shape and size of a grain of wheat belong ng to the foraminifera. It is easily recognized and highly characteristic of the Carboniferous (q.v.) rocks.

Gas, natural—gaseous hydrocarbon compounds, originating within the earth, probably of organic origin, and usually associated more or less closely with petroleum.

Geanticline—a large, broad, and usually very gentle anticline (q.v.), commonly many miles in width. See also geosyncline.

Geologist—one who has made a special study of the science of geology. A petroleum geologist is primarily one who has especially investigated the applications of geology to a search for oil and gas, but is expected to have a sufficient general knowledge of the oil and gas business that he can properly estimate not only the chances of success in drilling but also the probable and possible loss and gain. See index.

Geology—that science which treats of the origin, history, and structure of the earth, as recorded in the rocks; together with the forces and processes now operating to modify rocks.

Geosyncline—a large, broad, shallow syncline (q.v.), commonly many miles in breadth. See also geanticline.

Glacial deposits—unstratified, or in some cases roughly stratified masses of sand, gravel, clay, and bowlders which have been transported by glaciers. The only important glacial deposits in the United States are of Pleistocene (q.v.) age.

Gradient—inclination, as of a river course, or a rock stratum, usually expressed in degrees, per cent. slope, or feet per mile. A term often used to describe the slope of rock beds.

Gradienter screw—a slow-motion tangent screw controlling the inclination of the telescope. To the head of the screw is fastened a drum usually graduated into 100 divisions. The pitch of the threads is such that one complete revolution of the screw moves the horizontal cross-wire (q.v.) through a stadia (q.v.) angle, that is, over 1 ft. of the rod at a distance of 100 ft. Thus the screw can be used for determining both horizontal distances and differences in elevation. See index.

Granite—a coarse grained, deep seated igneous (q.v.) rock of granitoid texture consisting essentially of quartz and orthoclase feldspar, usually with mica or hornblende. Granites do not yield oil or gas in paying quantities.

Gravel—an unconsolidated mixture of rock fragments, bowlders, and pebbles of variable size, but larger than those of sand.

Gravity-see Baumé system, also specific gravity.

Gravity fault—a very loosely used and indefinite term, originally meant to apply to faults produced by gravity, i.e., by settling of the beds. Commonly used to designate a fault (q.v.) in which the hanging wall (q.v.) is the downthrow side. See also thrust fault, normal fault, and reversed fault.

Grits—coarse grained and often impure sandstones (q.v.).

Gusher—an oil well from which the oil spouts of itself, or flows freely without pumping.

Gypsum or "gyp"—calcium sulphate with water of crystallization (CaSO₄.2H₂O). Occurring alone, or with common salt, it is characteristic of sediments laid down in lakes in arid regions. Is also found associated with salt in the domes of the Gulf Coast Region.

Hade—the angle that a plane makes with the vertical. Hade is the complement of the dip (q.v.), which may be defined as the angle the plane makes with the horizontal. These angles are measured in a vertical plane, normal to the strike (q.v.) of the inclined plane.

Hand level—a small level provided with a sighting tube, which in some types carries a telescope. The arrangement by means of a mirror, is such that the observer can see the object sighted and the level bubble at the same time. When the cross-wire bisects the bubble and the object viewed, that object is on a level with the eye. See index.

Hanging wall—that wall of a dipping vein or fault (q.v.) that overhangs the fracture. See also foot wall.

Heave—the horizontal component of fault movement in a direction normal to the strike of the fault (q.v.).

Heavy oil—oil of low gravity Baumé (q.v.), from about 30° down; that is, oil with a high specific gravity (q.v.).

"Highs"—high points, either topographically or structurally; hence designated as "topographic highs" and "structural highs." The latter are the crests of anticlines. See index.

Hog-backs—sharp ridges caused by unequal erosion on alternating hard and soft layers of steeply inclined rock. Sometimes applied to ridges formed by hard dikes (q,v). A hog-back differs from a cuesta (q,v) in having the rocks more nearly vertical and the two slopes of the ridge more nearly equal.

Homocline—a condition in which the rocks all dip in one direction over considerable areas, although not a true one-limbed flexure; spoken of as a monoclinal dip. See monocline.

Horizon—a particular stratigraphic position, as the horizon of a certain fossil, meaning the particular place in the stratigraphic column where that fossil occurs, even though in widely separated localities.

Humidity—the amount of moisture in the air. Relative humidity is the percentage that the moisture in the air is of the total moisture that the air could hold at the given temperature, while absolute humidity is the actual weight of moisture in a given volume of air.

Hydrocarbons—compounds of the elements hydrogen and carbon, in either solid, liquid, or gaseous form. Natural gas and petroleum (q.v.) are mixtures of hydrocarbons.

Hydrodynamic pressure—pressure exerted by the deflection of moving water.

Hydrostatic pressure—pressure due to still water.

Igneous rocks—those rocks which have solidified or crystallized from a hot fluid mass called a magma. Igneous rocks, particularly those that have cooled deep in the earth such as granites (q.v.), are usually very compact and have an extremely low porosity. They are decidedly unfavorable to oil accumulation. See pyroclastic, tuff, intrusive, extrusive, etc.

Impermeable—impervious, not easily permeated, as by oil or water, either because of low porosity, very small individual pores, or pores that are disconnected.

Impervious rocks—rocks that will not allow passage of oil or water.

Initial dip—inclination of beds which is due to being deposited upon an uneven surface and not to folding.

Initial production—the rate of production at which a well first comes in. Inlier—an area of older rock entirely surrounded in outcrop by younger rock. May be caused by the eroded crest of an anticline (q.v.), by erosion on the upthrow side of a fault (q.v.), or by partial burial of isolated hills on an old erosion surface. See index.

Inspissation—evaporation of the lighter constituents of petroleum, leaving the heavier residue behind, as in the formation of asphalt (q.v.) rock.

Instrument man—one who uses a surveying instrument; in oil work, specifically, the one who uses the telescopic alidade as contrasted with the geologist who carries the rod and follows the outcrop. See index.

Intercept—that portion of the rod seen between the upper and lower stadia (q.v.) wires of a transit or telescopic alidade (q.v.), used for determining distance. See index.

Interval—the distance between any two given horizons (q.v.) as measured in a direction normal to them. (1) Stratigraphic interval, the vertical distance between two strata. This may vary from point to point. See convergence, isochore, and iso-pachous lines. (2) Contour interval. See contour. See index.

Intrusives—igneous rocks (q.v.), such as granites (q.v.), that have solidified below the surface of the earth. They are usually massive, non-porous, and unsuited to oil accumulations. See also extrusives.

Isobath—a structural contour line, a line drawn through points of equal elevation on the surface of a given rock bed. At the outcrop the isobath is at the surface of the ground; where the bed is buried, it is below the surface; and where the bed has been removed by erosion, it is above the surface. Isobaths show the configuration of rock folds. See structural contour and contour. See index.

Isochore—a line drawn through points of equal interval (q.v.) between successive beds. An isochore map is the same as a convergence chart (q.v.). Isocline—a fold, the limbs of which are parallel to each other.

Isogonic chart—a chart showing lines of equal magnetic declination (q.v.). Iso-pachous lines—lines on a map drawn through points of equal thickness of an oil sand.

Johnson movement—a ball and socket joint, combined with a swivel joint, used with plane tables (q.v.), to facilitate leveling the planehett (q.v.) and turning it after it is level. Invented by W. D. Johnson. See index.

Joints—fractures or cracks in the rocks, but without sufficient movement of the walls to be called faults (q.v.).

Jurassic—the second period of the Mesozoic (q.v.) era. Jurassic rocks in the United States are partly marine (q.v.) and partly terrestrial (q.v.). Up to date, no important oil production in this country is known from rocks of Jurassic age.

Kerosene shales-see oil shales.

Key bed—a term used in two senses. In one sense it applies to any bed of sufficiently distinctive characteristics to serve as an easily identifiable horizon in correlation (q.v.). In another sense it applies to the datum horizon (q.v.) on which elevations are taken, or to which elevations are finally computed, in making a structural contour map. See index.

Laminæ—very thin beds, as of shale. Very thin-bedded rocks are said to be laminated.

Lateral variation—variation parallel to the bedding in the same bed, stratum or formation (q.v.); either in character of material, degree of porosity, thickness, or some other feature. Variations in thickness and in porosity are of particular importance in influencing oil accumulation. See terrestrial deposits and littoral deposits.

Lava—igneous rock (q.v.) that has been poured out upon the surface and there solidified, usually in sheets. See extrusive.

Lens—a term used in two senses. (1) a lentil, a sedimentary bed that grows thinner in all directions to complete or practical disappearance; the bed is said to "lens out," or "pinch out;" (2) a piece of glass so shaped as to bring the rays of light to a focus and produce an image as the light passes through. See index.

Lenticular-lens-shaped.

Level—an instrument provided with a bubble-tube (q.v.), and made use of in determining horizontal, or level lines, usually as a means of determining elevation. See index.

Level-vial—the tube that contains the bubble, in any leveling instrument. See index.

Light oil—oil with a high gravity Baumé (q.v.), ranging from about 30° upward; that is, it has a low specific gravity (q.v.); usually a paraffin-base oil.

Limestone—a sedimentary rock (q.v.) consisting essentially of the mineral calcite (calcium carbonate). It may be shaly or sandy, depending on the impurities. If it contains much of the double carbonate of lime and magnesia, it is usually termed magnesian limestone, or dolomite. Limestones vary greatly in porosity, some being highly impervious; others are sufficiently porous to constitute good reservoirs for oil accumulation.

Line of collimation—see collimation. See also index.

Lithologic similarity—similarity of various rock formations with regard to physical properties, such as size of grain, mineral content, color, etc. See index.

Lithology—that branch of geology that deals with the origin and properties of rocks.

Littoral deposits—those sediments formed in the shore zone under the influence of active wave work. Characterized by coarseness, ripple marks, cross-bedding (q.v.), and extremely rapid lateral variation (q.v).

Locke level—a special type of hand level designed by John Locke. Now used rather loosely for almost any simple type of hand level. See index.

Log—the detailed record of the rocks passed through in drilling. When accurate, logs constitute a valuable source of information.

Longitudinal valleys—strike valleys (q.v.), those cut on softer layers of rock parallel to the upturned edges of harder layers which form ridges. See index.

Lows—used in two senses; (1) an area of low barometric (q.v.) pressure, a storm center; (2) a region structurally low, as a syncline (q.v.); some-

times also applied to saddles between local "highs" (q.v.) along the crests of anticlines (q.v.).

Mantle rock—the loose, unconsolidated rock material, such as sand, gravel, clay, etc., resting on the solid rock; soil. Frequently termed "surface" in logs.

Marine formations—those formations laid down in the sea as contrasted with those laid down on land or in lakes.

Markers—(1) specially marked points on a rod used to aid in its reading; (2) strata with easily recognized characteristics, such as make simple their identification in the field. See index.

Marsh gas—methane (CH₄), the chief constituent of natural gas but often resulting from the partial decay of plants in swamps. Not uncommonly misinterpreted as an indication of the presence of petroleum.

Matrix—the finer particles of sand, clay, or other substances in which the coarser particles of a conglomerate (q.v.) are embedded and by which they are cemented.

Member—a subdivision of a formation (q.v.) not usually mapped as a separate unit, but sufficiently distinctive to merit separate detailed description. Not uncommonly the members of a large formation are, as a result of more detailed work, raised to the rank of formations.

Mercurial barometer—a barometer (q.v.) consisting of a glass tube closed at one end, filled with mercury, and inverted into a dish of mercury. The pressure of the air on the mercury in the dish holds a column of mercury in the tube, and the upper surface of this column rises and falls with variations of atmospheric pressure. See also aneroid. See index.

Mesozoic era—the era following the Paleozoic (q.v.) and preceding the Cenozoic (q.v.). The Mesozoic is divided into the Triassic (q.v.), Jurassic (q.v.), and Cretaceous (q.v.) periods.

Metamorphic rocks—rocks which, as a result of heat or pressure, or both, have been partially or wholly altered to new rocks. Common types are slates, schists, marbles, and gneisses. They are usually of very low porosity, and not suited to oil accumulation.

Methane—see marsh gas.

Migration—the movement of oil or gas through the pores of the rock. The rate of movement varies with the permeability of the rock, with the viscosity of the oil, and with other factors. Migration is essential to accumulation, but the distance which the oil may travel, and the effect of migration on the oil itself are not well known. See index.

Mineral oil—another name for petroleum and its derivatives.

Miocene epoch—the third epoch of the Tertiary (q.v.). Miocene is known on the coastal plain, where it is chiefly marine; in the Rocky Mountains and Great Basin, where it consists of terrestrial sediments mingled with volcanic rocks; and on the Pacific Coast, where it consists largely of marine sediments. It is oil bearing in California, and in the Gulf Coast region.

Mississippian epoch—the earliest epoch of the Carboniferous (q.v.) period. Rocks of this series are widespread in the United States, where they are chiefly sedimentary and contain a large proportion of limestone. Oil and gas is produced in commercial quantities from rocks of this age.

Mississippi lime—in the Mid-Continent Field, the limestone just below the Pennsylvanian (q.v.) series. Some confusion arises by applying it both to the black lime (probably the Mound and Pitken formations) and to the stratigraphically underlying white lime (probably the Boone). It was formerly believed that there was no use drilling into the "Mississippi lime," but it is now certain that there are possibilities in these and lower beds.

Monocline—properly a one-limbed fold with the beds inclined in one direction only; in common usage, however, often applied to dips in only one direction, even though representing but one limb of a very large anticline (q.v.) or syncline (q.v.). Homocline (q.v.) is now being used to some extent for the latter. See index.

Monocular hand level—any hand level (q.v.) with one sighting tube, applied specifically to a Gurley instrument of the more complex telescopic type. See index.

Mounds—in the Gulf Coast Field the topographic elevations, some of which mark the sites of the salt domes; in general, any prominent, more or less isolated hill.

Natural gas-see gas, natural.

Nodules-see concretions.

Normal fault—a fault (q.v.) in which, as referred to a vertical section normal to its strike, the hanging wall appears to have moved down; i.e., the fault plane dips toward the downthrow side.

Nose—a relatively small, pitching (q.v.) anticline, without individual closure; a plunging (q.v.) anticline.

Objective—the lens or lenses at the opposite end from the eyepiece in a telescope or microscope. See index.

Ocular—the lens, or combination of lenses of a microscope or telescope which constitute the eyepiece. See index.

Offset well—a well drilled opposite to a well on an adjoining property, the distance between them (usually 600 ft.) being such that it is not expected that a well will be drilled therein.

Oil—the common term for liquid petroleum as found in nature; a mixture of natural liquid hydrocarbons.

Oil field—a general oil-producing region, which may be large or small, and usually consists of numerous individual pools. See oil pool.

Oil geologist—see geologist.

Oil pool—a division of an oil field (q.v.); the contiguous area that produces oil. The entire area of a pool is usually related to a single structural feature, such as an anticline (q.v.).

"Oil sand"—any stratum containing oil. Because of the higher average porosity of sandstone, most "oil sands" are true sandstones (q.v.), but many are porous limestones (q.v.). See index.

Oil shale—highly organic shales which are capable of yielding, upon proper retorting, liquid hydrocarbons of the general nature of petroleum.

Oligocene epoch—the second epoch of the Tertiary (q.v.) period.

Oolitic—consisting of oolites, or small concretionary particles, cemented together to form a rock mass. Each individual oolite, or tiny concretion, is about the size of a millet seed, and may consist of silica, calcium carbonate, iron oxide, or other substance. Named from the resemblance to fish eggs.

Open pressure—the pressure on a gas well that has been open long enough for the accumulated pressure to waste. See also closed pressure.

Open sand—one that is porous and relatively permeable, as contrasted with tight sand, which is relatively impermeable.

Ordovician period—the second period of the Paleozoic (q.v.) era; characterized in the United States by widespread limestone formations. The Trenton limestone of this period is the "oil sand" of the Ohio-Indiana Field.

Orientation—the placing of a map or instrument in such a position that its directions coincide with the points of the compass.

Oscillation—applied in part to changes in sea level, bringing about, as a rule, corresponding changes in the character of the sediments being deposited.

Outcrops—specifically, actual exposure of ledge, or bedrock (q.v.); in a more general sense, area of outcrop of a formation indicates the area over which the formation directly underlies the surface soil, even though not actually bare and exposed.

Outlier—an area of younger rock entirely surrounded in outcrop by older rock; caused by the younger rock cappings on isolated hills; by planation of synclines (q.v.) leaving remnants of younger rock in the center; or by erosion leaving younger remnants on the downthrow side of a fault (q.v.). See index.

Overthrust—a very low-angle fault (q.v.) caused by thrust.

Overturned fold—any fold in which one limb has passed the vertical so that the beds in that limb are no longer right side up.

Paleontology—the study of evidences of the life of the past as preserved in the rocks; more specifically a study of fossils (q.v.), especially in their application to problems of correlation (q.v.).

Paleozoic era—the era following the Proterozoic (q.v.) and preceding the Mesozoic (q.v.). It is divided into the Cambrian (q.v.), Ordovician (q.v.), Silurian (q.v.), Devonian (q.v.), and Carboniferous (q.v.) periods.

Paraffin-base oil—an oil, the chief solid residue of which is paraffin, as contrasted with one which has a base of asphalt.

Paraffin dirt—peculiar "curdy" or "rubbery" soil, of the Gulf Coast region, believed to be formed by the action of escaping gas on peat or humus. It is doubtful whether it contains any true paraffin. It is thought that it may indicate either seeps of natural gas, or of ordinary marsh gas, and its value as an oil indication is in much dispute. See index.

Parallax—apparent displacement of an object, due to the position of the observer. For example, in looking through a hand level, the observer, by slightly moving the eye, can shift the apparent line of coincidence of the bubble, the cross-wire, and the object viewed. See index.

Pay, pay sand, pay streak—that portion of an oil or gas sand in which the oil or gas is concentrated. See oil sand.

Peneplanation—the wearing down of a land surface by erosion (q.v.) to a nearly level plain, termed a peneplain. Also spelled peneplane.

Pennsylvanian epoch—the middle epoch of the Carboniferous (q.v.) period. Pennsylvanian rocks in the United States are chiefly sedimentary; are important sources of coal in the Appalachian, Illinois, and Western Interior Fields; and carry much oil and gas in the Mid-Continent Field.

Period—a unit of geological time, smaller than an era (q.v.) and larger than an epoch (q.v.). Cambrian, Carboniferous, Cretaceous, and Tertiary are examples of periods (q.v.).

Permeable—easily penetrated by solutions, as by water or oil; usually said of porous rocks, though not all porous rocks are permeable; those in which the pores are not well connected being relatively impermeable.

Permian epoch—the latest epoch of the Carboniferous (q.v.) period. Over most of the western United States the Permian consists largely of "red beds" (q.v.), probably laid down on land under arid conditions, as a result of which they are deficient in organic matter, and in general, therefore, not promising oil territory. Are thought to produce oil and gas in commercial quantities in some places.

Persistence—the condition of continuity of beds, and regularity in character and thickness. Because of more uniform conditions in the ocean than on land, marine beds (q.v.) are more persistent than terrestrial (q.v.), and limestones than sandstones laid down nearer shore. See lateral variation and littoral deposits.

Pervious rocks—see permeable.

Petroleum—a mixture of natural liquid hydrocarbons of very variable composition. Contains compounds ranging from solid to gaseous. See gas, asphalt, hydrocarbons.

Petroleum geologist-see geologist.

Petroleum seep or spring—a natural outlet where petroleum escapes to the surface of the ground. Frequently marked by asphaltic soils.

"Pinching" out—see lens.

Pitch—a term used in two very different senses; (1) the inclination of a fold along its axis (q.v.); the plunge of a fold; (2) natural solid or extremely viscous hydrocarbon compounds, derived from evaporation of asphalt-base petroleum.

Planchette—the board, or top, of a plane table.

Plane table—a small board mounted on a tripod by means of a swivel or ball-and-socket joint, and used for mapping purposes. See index.

Pleistocene epoch—the first epoch of the Quaternary (q.v.) period, the epoch of extensive glaciation in North America.

Pliocene epoch—the latest epoch of the Tertiary (q.v.) period.

Plug—the solidified core of igneous rock (q.v.) in the throat of an old volcano. Sometimes also applied to nearly round dikes (q.v.).

Plunging fold—a fold, the axis (q.v.) of which is not horizontal; a fold that has pitch (q.v.).

Pool-see oil pool.

Pore space—the open space, or voids, between the individual grains of a rock mass. Varies greatly, according to various estimates, that of oil sands ranging between 10 and 25 per cent.

Pre-Cambrian—a general term for all time and for all rocks prior to the Cambrian (q.v.). As a rule pre-Cambrian rocks [Archean (q.v.) and Algonkian (q.v.)] are highly metamorphosed. Not known to contain oil or gas in commercial amounts.

Precise leveling—leveling of the highest order of accuracy obtainable.

Pressure—(1) the pressure exerted by a well, chiefly gas pressure, but in part perhaps a result of head of water. See closed pressure and open pressure. (2) Atmospheric pressure, the pressure exerted by the weight of a column of air; measured by a barometer (q.v.). See index.

Production—a term used in related senses to indicate (1) that phase of the petroleum industry that deals with the extraction of the oil and gas from the ground; (2) the amount of oil produced, viz., daily production, monthly production, flush production (q.v.), settled production (q.v.), to buy production, and the like.

Production curves—curves plotted for individual wells, for pools, or for fields, showing the rate of production at successive periods of time; made particularly for the purpose of studying the rate of decline (q.v.) of wells and pools.

Prospect—to search for oil, either by looking for surface indications, such as seeps (q.v.) and anticlines (q.v.); or by drilling, or by both methods. A prospect is an area which has been located and suspected to be favorable. Only a small proportion of prospects materialize.

Proterozoic—a term used by the United States Geological Survey for what is herein defined as pre-Cambrian (q.v.). Proterozoic is used by many authors as a term equivalent to Algonkian (q.v.) as herein defined.

Protractor—a portion of a circle laid off in degrees for use in making angular measurements, an instrument in common use by the draftsman.

Proven territory—territory that has been definitely demonstrated to be productive or non-productive by actual drilling. Commonly used to denote the former.

Pyroclastic—fragmental volcanic rock, such as volcanic ash (q.v.), tuff (q.v.), and agglomerate (q.v.).

Quaquaversal—structurally a dome (q.v.), the rocks dipping outward in all directions; an anticline nearly circular in plan.

Quartzite—a sandstone which has been so firmly cemented with silica that the cement is as resistant as the quartz grains. Has low porosity and would not serve as an oil reservoir.

Quaternary—the latest period of geologic time, the time of extensive glaciation in North America. Quaternary deposits are widespread at the surface, but are usually patchy and of slight depth. They include glacial formations and are not petroleum producers. See glacial deposits.

Reconnaissance work—the preliminary examination of a region. See index.

Recovery—the securing of the oil from the rocks; a term used commonly in considering the proportion of the oil that is extracted.

Recurrent faunas—On fluctuating shore lines, the animal life may move back and forth, with the changes of level. At a given point a certain fauna (q.v.) may be flourishing on a limey bottom. Uplift brings the area near land so that sand is laid down and conditions are unfavorable, the fauna migrating into deeper water. Now a deepening of the sea, by sinking, may cause lime bottoms once more, and the given fauna may return. This will result in limestones, separated by a sandstone, both limestones having the same fauna, which is said to be recurrent.

"Red beds"—red sands and shales with thin limestones and much gypsum, widespread over western United States, which range in age from late Pennsylvanian (q.v.) to Jurassic (q.v.), but are largely Permo-Triassic. See Permian, Triassic.

Refraction—the bending of light from its course as it passes from rarer to denser or denser to rarer media. See lens.

Regional dip—the general dip over a large region which is usually controlled by its relation to some major uplift. See index.

Relative humidity—see humidity.

Resection—a method of locating the plane table by sights on known points. See index.

Reservoir—a rock sufficiently porous to serve as a place of accumulation of oil or gas.

Residual soil or residuum—the soil accumulated in place as a result of the weathering of the rock below; the less soluble residue from which the more soluble rock materials have been leached out.

Reversals—the change from a dip in one direction to one in the opposite. See east dip, regional dip. See index.

Reversed fault—a fault (q.v.) in which, when referred to a cross section at right angles to the strike, the foot-wall appears to have moved down; *i.e.*, the fault plane dips toward the upthrow side. See also normal fault, gravity fault, and thrust fault.

Rock asphalt—rock impregnated with asphalt from the evaporation of natural petroleum. See asphalt rock.

Rock pressure—a name applied to the pressure (q.v.) shown by oil and gas wells.

Rod—a light board or rod painted to read in convenient divisions, such as feet or meters, and used in leveling and stadia (q.v.) observations. See level, etc. See index.

Rodman—the man who uses or carries a surveying rod. In petroleum geologic work, the geologist, who carries the rod and follows the outcrop, in order that the instrument man may determine the location and elevation of points chosen thereon. See index.

Saddles—(1) structurally lower places along the crest of an anticline, between two local "highs" (q.v.); (2) topographically lower places along the crest of a main ridge or divide, between two local peaks.

Salines-see salt domes.

Salt domes—dome-shaped structures in the Gulf Coast Field, in which the dips are usually steep; and which commonly have a core of salt. See index.

Salting—fraudulent introduction or enrichment of values in a prospect, to aid the sale or promotion of same.

Sand—finely divided particles of rock material, usually silicious; the particles coarser than those of clay, and smaller than those of gravel. See oil sand.

Sandstone—a sedimentary (q.v.) rock resulting from the consolidation of sand. Sandstone usually consists essentially of grains of quartz (silica) with minor impurities such as clay, iron oxide, and lime carbonate.

Sapping—the natural process of undermining cliffs by the wearing back of softer layers.

Scarp—an abbreviated form of the word escarpment, more commonly restricted to cliffs produced by faulting.

Scouting—in the geological sense, synonymous with reconnaissance work. Also employed to designate the obtaining of information concerning areas being drilled by others.

Sealing—rendering tight; (1) the cementing of the pores of an outcropping oil sand by asphaltic residue, so that oil is trapped below. (2) Faults (q.v.) are said to be sealed when they are rendered tight by shale or clay walls that close sufficiently to prevent the escape of oil.

Sea wax—bitumenous matter thrown up along sea coasts; probably resulting from partial oxidation of sea weeds. Such wax is sometimes mistaken for an indication of the presence of petroleum. See index.

Secondary limestone—limestone deposited by solution in cracks and cavities of other rocks; particularly that accompanying the salt and gypsum of the Gulf Coast salt domes.

Sedimentation—the process of laying down sediments; the deposition of finely divided rock material by wind, water, or glaciers.

Sedimentary rocks—rocks laid down in a more or less finely divided state, as sediment, through the agency of water, wind, or glaciers. Sandstones, limestones, shales, and conglomerates are common examples.

Seeps—points at which water, oil, or gas, emerges from the ground in small quantities. Springs are more localized and have a larger flow. See index.

Settled production—the steady production of an oil well after a period of some days or months when the rate of decline (q,v) has become small.

Set-up—instrument station; point at which plane table (q.v.) and alidade (q.v.) are placed for the taking of observations. See index.

Shale—a sedimentary rock (q.v.) consisting of more or less consolidated fine muds.

Shale oil—oil resulting from the distillation of organic shales. See oil shale.

Shell—(1) any thin layer of a harder rock which breaks the continuity of a softer one. (2) A fossil (q,v) or recent external skeleton.

Shift—that horizontal component of a fault (q.v.) movement which lies in a direction parallel to the strike of the fault plane.

Shooting—exploding nitro-glycerine or other high explosive in a hole, to shatter the rock and increase the flow of oil. Same as torpedoing.

Shot—(1) in instrument work, a sight (q.v.); (2) in shooting wells (q.v.), a charge of explosive.

Side-shots—those sights, taken from any set-up (q.v.), which are not used as turning-points (q.v.), and are therefore not stations in the traverse. See backsight, foresight, etc. See index.

Sight—each determination of elevation or distance from the set-up (q.v.). See also set-up, backsight, foresight, and shot.

Silurian period—the third period of the Paleozoic (q.v.) era. In the United States, Silurian rocks consist largely of marine (q.v.) sediments with abundant limestones, and have produced oil in Michigan and eastern fields.

Slickensides—striæ on rock surfaces, produced by friction along the walls of a fault (q,v).

Sludge—mud or slime; either natural, as in rivers and bays, or artificial from drill cuttings.

Slump—the settling of beds owing to removal of material underneath. On hillsides, large slabs of rock break off and "slump" down, where they give the false impression of dipping beds.

Sour dirt—a dirt impregnated with sulphates resulting from the escape of SO₂ or H₂S. Because sulphur is often associated with petroleum in the salt domes of the Gulf Coast Field, "sour dirt," also known as "copperas dirt," is by many considered as an indication of oil in that region. See index.

Specific gravity—the ratio of the weight of a given substance to the weight of an equal volume of water. Not to be confused with gravity Baumé. See Baumé and gravity.

Spherical aberration—see aberration.

Spilling flow lines—the lines of least resistance along which oil or gas will escape from a structure when it becomes filled.

Spilling point—that point from which when a dome becomes filled with oil or gas, one or both commence to escape.

"Spotty" formations—formations with rapid lateral variations (q.v.); that is, with sudden changes in character, particularly applied to variations in porosity, and hence in productive capacity.

Spring—a point where water or oil emerges from the ground in sufficient quantity to flow away; as contrasted with seep (q.v.), from which there is no stream flowing away. See index.

Stadia—an instrument and an instrument method for measuring distances. See index.

Staggering wells—to arrange wells in rows, such that those in one row are placed opposite spaces in the next row.

Station—any point the location or elevation of which is determined. See set-up, sight, turning-point, etc.

Stebbinger attachment—the graduated drum (q.v.) used with a gradienter screw (q.v.).

Stepping method—a method of determining elevations by using the stadia wires. See index.

Stratigraphic correlation—the determination of the equivalency or non-equivalency in age of separated rock outcrops, accomplished by means of fossils (q.v.), lithologic similarity (q.v.), etc. See index.

Stratigraphic throw—the displacement produced by faulting, measured normal to the rock strata.

Stratigraphy—the study of rock strata, the conditions of their deposition, their character, age, distribution, and the like.

Stratum—a layer of rock more or less similar throughout, a lithologic unit. It may consist of one or more beds (q.v.), and may constitute a formation (q.v.) or a member (q.v.), or be only one of several strata in such formation or member.

Stray sands—lenticular sands of local distribution, often not previously found in other drilling in the vicinity and hence not expected. See "oil sand," "spotty," and "lateral variations."

Streaks—long narrow lenses of sand; perhaps old beach lines. A well known example is the so-called "shoe-string" near Paola, Kansas.

Striated—covered with parallel scratches, such as fault slickensides (q, v_*) , or glacial scratches (striations).

Striding level—the small, separately-mounted bubble-tube (q.v.) that is used on top of a telescope. When not in use, it is removed and clamped on the basal plate of the instrument. See level. See index.

Strike—the trace of the d pping plane (a rock bed, fault, or vein) on the horizontal. The strike is at right angles to the direction of dip (q.v.).

Strike valleys—valleys parallel to the strike (q.v.) of the rocks; as contrasted with dip valleys (q.v.), at right angles to the strike. Strike valleys are said to be longitudinal, and dip valleys transverse. See index.

Structural contours—contour (q.v.) lines which represent the structure or shape of the surface of a given rock bed. See isobath. See index.

Structural high—the crest of a dome or anticline (q,v).

Structural low—the bottom of a structural trough or syncline (q.v.).

Structure—in general the attitude of the rocks and the features which determine that attitude, as stratification, faults, anticlines, synclines, terraces (qq.v.), etc. In oil work commonly used synonymously with anticline.

Subsurface work—the study of underground conditions from well records. Includes studies of the thickness, porosity, permeability, and variations of sands; the construction of "sand maps" showing structural contours on the "oil sand;" the correlation of sands; and studies of water conditions. A somewhat new and very promising branch of petroleum geology.

Subterranean storage—(1) accumulation of oil and gas in porous rocks underground; (2) the bringing of gas during the summer months from distant points and storing it in some anticline near the point of winter consumption.

Sulphuretted waters—waters containing hydrogen sulphide (H2S).

Superposition, law of order of—a general law that states the evident fact that in regions where the rock layers have not been disturbed, the oldest are at the bottom of the series, the youngest at the top.

Surface—see mantle rock.

Surveys—for oil work are of two types, reconnaissance (q.v.), and detailed (q.v.). See index.

Symmetrical fold—a fold both limbs of which dip equally but in opposite directions.

Synclinal mountains and valleys—mountains and valleys on the sites of synclines.

Syncline—a trough in the rock beds; a structurally low point toward which the rocks dip; a structural basin. See also anticline. See index.

Synclinorium—a composite syncline, one in which there are minor crenulations or folds on the limbs of the major syncline.

Tangent screw—a slow-motion screw tangent to an arc or circle. See gradienter screw. See also index.

Tar—a dark viscous asphaltic residue resulting from partial evaporation or distillation of petroleum or other hydrocarbons of asphaltic base.

Terrace—a structural flattening or bench in a prevailing dip. Not to be confused with topographic benches, which may or may not be present. See index.

Terrestrial beds—beds laid down on land, as contrasted with marine beds formed in the ocean. Owing to more varied conditions of formation on land, terrestrial beds are subject to greater lateral variation than are marine beds.

Tertiary period—the first period of the Cenozoic (q.v.) era. In the United States, Tertiary rocks are abundant on the Coastal Plain where they are in part marine (q.v.), and in part terrestrial (q.v.); in the Rocky Mountains, where they are terrestrial and partly volcanic; and on the Pacific Coast, where they are both marine and terrestrial. They carry coal in the Rocky Mountains and Pacific states; and oil in California and the Gulf Coast Field. Much foreign oil is of Tertiary age.

Throw—the vertical component of fault (q.v.) movement.

Thrust fault—intended to apply to faults (q.v.) caused by thrust, in most of which the hanging wall (q.v.) is the upthrow (q.v.) side. Also applied indiscriminately to all faults in which the hanging wall is the upthrow side. See also gravity fault, normal fault, and reversed fault.

"Tie in"—to close a traverse (q.v.) by checking for elevation and location on some known point. See bench mark.

Tight sand—a sand the pores of which are so few or so filled with clay or cementing material that oil or water does not pass freely through it. See open sand. See index.

Topographic highs—hills, usually limited to more or less isolated topographically elevated points. See index.

Topography—the general configuration of the land surface; the sum total of the results of erosion and deposition on the physigraphic features of a region.

Torpedoing—see shooting.

Transit—a surveying instrument consisting essentially of a telescope free to move horizontally and vertically over circles graduated into degrees and minutes, so that bearings (q.v.) and vertical angles (q.v.) can be read. See also stadia, Beaman stadia are, gradienter, etc.

Transverse valleys—see dip valleys.

Traverse—the survey of a given course, by determining the bearings (q.v.) and distances of various points, and plotting to scale. For reasons of accuracy

a traverse should usually close on itself, or on some known point. Directions are taken by compass, transit, or alidade; and distances measured by pacing, buggy wheel, chaining, stadia, or other method.

Trenton lime—a widespread dolomitic limestone of middle Ordovician age. It is an important oil-bearing horizon in the Oh'o-Indiana Fields.

Triangulation—the process of locating points by intersection. See index. Triassic—the first period of the Mesozoic (q.v.) era. The rocks of this age in the United States are largely terrestrial. "Red beds" (q.v.) are characteristic. They have not yielded commercial quantities of oil and gas in this country.

Trinidad asphalt or pitch—natural asphalt which occurs as a large lake in the Island of Trinidad.

Trough—the lowest part of a syncline (q.v.), the axis (q.v.), or point, toward which the beds dip inward.

Tuff—cemented volcanic ash (q.v.); a pyroclastic (q.v.) rock.

Turning-point—a station upon which two instrument determinations are usually made, the first, a foresight (q.v.), to determine the position and elevation of the point; the second, a backsight (q.v.), to determine the position and elevation of the instrument at a new set-up (q.v.). See index.

Unconformity—an erosion break in the continuity of sedimentation. Where one formation rests on the eroded surface of a lower one, the two are said to be unconformable and the erosional gap is said to be an unconformity. See also angular unconformity and disconformity. See index.

Unproved territory—territory that has not been tested by drilling.

Uplift—the raising of land areas; not uncommonly applied locally to structurally raised areas, as the Ozark uplift, the Adirondack uplift.

Upthrow side—that side of a fault (q.v.) that appears to have been raised relative to the other side. See also downthrow side.

Vernier—an auxiliary scale, used to read the main scale more closely than the regular division marks will allow. See index.

Vertical angle—the angle between the horizontal and an inclined line of sight, commonly used to determine elevation. See index.

Vertical arc—the arc, on a transit or telescopic alidade, by which the inclination of the telescope tube is read and the vertical angle (q.v.) thus determined. See ndex.

Vertical deformation—the vertical distance as measured on the surface of any given bed between the crest of an anticline (q.v.) and the trough of the adjacent syncline (q.v.).

Voids-see pore space.

Volcanic ash—the finely divided, fragmental rock material violently blown from volcanoes during explosive eruptions. See also pyroclastic and tuff.

Volcanic breccia—cemented, coarse, fragmental volcanic material, as contrasted with the finer tuff (q.v.). See agglomerate, pyroclastic, etc.

Volcanic domes—domes which have been formed by the bowing up of rocks due to the intrusion of igneous (q.v.) masses at depth. Some geologists believe this to be the origin of the Gulf Coast salt domes.

Volcanic neck-see plug.

Volcanic plug-see plug.

Vuggs—small cavities in the rock, probably caused in many cases by shrinkage resulting from replacement of minerals by others of less volume. Also spelled vughs and vugs.

Water sand—any sand that yields water. An oil sand in one locality may be a water sand in another.

Water table—the upper level of the great body of ground water, or that irregular surface below which the pores of the rock are saturated.

Water well—a well yielding water and no oil irrespective of the purpose for which it was drilled.

Wax-see sea wax.

West dip—a dip to the west. Such a dip is the rule in the M'd-Continent Field, where it is often simply called "west," and reversals or east dips, "easts." See regional dip.

Wet natural gas—a natural gas high in gasoline content.

Wildcat—in the oil world, a term that does not carry the odium that attaches to it in metal mining. Any well is a wildcat, no matter how good the prospects, if in strictly unproved territory. Used to designate various degrees of uncertainty.



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	38 39	594 623	599 628	.743	894 893	22 21		38 39	337 366	350 379	.748 .676	799 797	23
	40	.04653	. 04658	21.470	.99892	20		40	.06395	.06408	15.605	.99795	21 20
	41	682	687	337	890	19		41	424	438	.534	793	19
	42 43	711 740	716 745	. 20 <u>5</u> 21.075	889 888	18 17		42 43	453 482	467 496	.464	792 790	18
-	44	769	774	20.946	886	16		44	511	525	.325	788	17
	45	.04798	.04803	20.819	.99885	15		45	.06540	. 06554	15.257	. 99786	15
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2	511	569	.4614	446	58	П	2	215	308 338	1054	248	5
3 l	540	599	4352	443	57	l	3	274	367	.0860	244	5
4	569	628	.4090	440	56	П	4	302	397	.0667	240	5
5	.10597	:10657	9.3831	.99437	55	l	5	. 12331	12426	8.0476	.99237	5
6	626	687	.3572	434	54	П	6	360	456	.0285	233	5
7 I	655	716	.3315	431	53	Н	7	389	485	8.0095	230	5
8	684	746	.3060	428	52	Н	8	418	515	7.9906	226	5
9	713	775	.2806	·424	51	l	.9	447	544	.9718	222	5
10	. 10742	.10805	9.2553	.99421	50	H	10	. 12476	.12574	7.9530	.99219	5
11	771	834	.2302	418	49	П	11	504	603	.9344	215	4
12	800	863	.2052	415	48	H	12	533	633	.9158	211	4
13	829	893	.1803	412	47	ы	13	562	662	.8973	208	4
14	858	922	.1555	409	46	l	14	591	692	.8789	204	4
15	. 10887	.10952	9.1309	.99406	45	П	15	. 12620	.12722	7.8606	.99200	4
16	916	. 10981	.1065	402	44	Н	16	649	751	8424	197	4
17 18	945	.11011	.0821	399 396	43	П	17	678	781	.8243	193	4
19	.11002	040	.0579	393	42 41	П	18 19	706	810	.8062	189	4
		.11099		.99390		П		735	840	.7882	186	
20	.11031	128	9.0098	386	40 39	П	20 21	.12764 793	.12869 899	7.7704 .7525	.99182	3
22	089	158	.9623	383	38	Н	22	822	929	7348	17 <u>8</u> 175	3
23	118	187	.9387	380	37		23	851	958	.7171	171	3
24	147	217	.9152	377	36	П	24	880	.12988	.6996	167	l ã
25	.11176	.11246	8.8919	.99374	35	H	25	.12908	.13017	7.6821	.99163	3
26	205	276	.8686	370	34	1 1	26	937	047	.6647	160	l 3
27 l	234	305	.8455	367	33		27	966	076	.6473	156	3
28	263	333	.8225	364	32	П	28	. 12995	106	.6301	152	3
29	291	364	.7996	360	31	П	29	. 13024	136	.6129	148	3
30	.11320	.11394	8.7769	.99357	30	١ ١	30	. 13053	. 13165	7.5958	.99144	3
31	349	423	.7542	354	29	H	31	081	. 1316 <u>5</u> 195	.5787	141	2
32	378	452	.7317	351	28	Н	32	110	224	.5618	137	2
33	407	482	.7093	347	27	H	33	139	254	.5449	133	2
34	436	511	.6870	344	26	ΙI	34	168	284	.5281	129	2
35	.11465	.11541	8.6648	.99341	25		35	. 13197	.13313	7 5113	99125	2
36 37	494	570	.6427	337 334	24	İΙ	36	226	343	4947	122	2 2
38	523 552	600	.6208	221	23 22	l	37 38	254 283	372 402	.4615	118	۱ ہٰ
39	580	629	.5772	331 327	21	П	39	312	432	.4451	110	2 2
40	.11609	.11688	8.5555	.99324	20	ı	40	13341	13461	7 4287	99106	1 2
41	638	718	.5340	320	19	П	41	370	491	4124	102	Ιî
42	667	747	.5126	317	18	П	42	399	521	3962	098	Ιi
43	696	777	.4913	314	liž	П	43	427	550	3800	094	Ιi
44	725	806	4701	310	16		44	456	580	.3639	091	Ιi
45	. 11754	.11836	8,4490	.99307	15		45	.13485	13609	7 3479	99087	1
46	783	865	.4280	303	14	ı	46	514	639	3319	083	1
47 !	812	895	.4071	300	13	П	47	543	669	3160	079	1
48	840	924	.3863	297	12		48	572	698	.3002	075	1
49	869	954	.3656	293	11	П	49	600	728	.2844	071	1
50	.11898	.11983	8.3450	.99290	10		50	. 13629	. 13758	7 2687	99067	1
51	927	12013	.3245	286	9		51	658	787	2531	063	1
52	956	042	.3041	283	8	H	52	687	817	2375 2220	059	ı
53 54	.11985	072	.2838	279 276	7		53 54	716 744	846 876	.2066	051	1
	. 12014	101	.2636		6	l					.99047	ı
55	. 12043	.12131	8.2434	.99272	5		55	. 13773	.13906	7.1912	043	1
56 57	071 100	160 190	.2234	269 265	4 3	1	56 57	802 831	965	.1607	039	1
58	129	219	.2033	262	2		58	860	.13995	.1455	035	1
59	158	249	.1640	258	ĺí	П	59	. 889	14024	1304	031	1
60	.12187	.12278	8.1443	.99253	6	П	60	.13917	.14054	7.1154	.99027	1
	cos	cot	tan	sin	 	1		cos	cot	tan	sin	╁

Sin	-Con	tinued:	. 9)° 99	° 189° 2	79°
1 672 888 3019 764 59 2 701 898 2901 760 58 3 730 928 2783 755 57 4 758 958 .2666 751 56 5 15787 15988 6.2549 98746 56 8 8673 077 2200 732 52 9 902 107 2085 728 51 10 15931 16137 6.1970 98723 50 11 959 167 1856 718 49 12 15988 196 1742 714 48 13 16017 226 1628 709 47 14 046 226 1515 704 46 15 16074 16286 6.1402 .98700 45 16 103 316 129 695 44 <	1	sin	tan	cot	cos	
46 964 213 8095 551 14 47 16992 243 7994 546 13 48 .17021 273 7894 541 12 49 050 303 .7794 536 11 50 17078 17333 5 7694 98531 10 52 136 393 7495 521 8 53 164 423 7396 516 7 54 193 453 7297 511 6 55 17222 17483 5.7199 98506 5 56 17222 17483 5.7199 98506 5 57 279 543 7004 496 3 58 308 573 6906 491 2 59 336 603 6809 486 1	0 11 22 3 3 4 4 5 5 6 6 7 7 8 8 9 10 11 12 13 13 14 14 15 16 17 17 18 18 19 20 21 22 22 22 22 22 23 23 33 33 33 33 33 33	sin 15643 672 701 730 758 15787 816 845 873 873 816 16017 046 16074 103 132 160 189 16218 246 275 333 16361 3900 419 447 476 16503 562 591 16648 677 704 763 1672 820 849 878	15838 868 898 928 958 15988 16017 107 16137 167 196 2266 256 616286 316 346 346 346 346 346 346 465 465 465 465 465 465 465 465 465 4	cot	. 98769 . 764 . 760 . 755 . 751 . 98746 . 741 . 737 . 732 . 728 . 98723 . 714 . 709 . 704 . 98700 . 695 . 695 . 662 . 663 . 666 . 667 . 667 . 667 . 668 . 66	60 59 857 56 554 48 5551 50 948 476 444 442 41 40 938 73 6 554 22 22 1 20 98 187 16
43 878 123 .8400 565 17 44 906 153 .8298 561 16 45 16935 .17183 5.8197 .98556 15 46 964 213 .8095 .551 14 47 16992 243 .7994 .546 13 48 1.7021 273 .7894 .541 12 49 050 303 .7794 .536 11 50 17078 17333 5 7694 98531 10 51 107 363 7594 526 9 52 136 393 7495 521 8 53 164 423 .7396 516 7 54 193 453 .7199 .98506 5 56 1222 .17483 .7199 .98506 5 56 1225 .513 .7101 .501 4	28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40	419 447 476 16503 533 562 591 620 16648 677 706 734 763 16792 820	645 674 704 16734 764 794 824 854 .16884 914 .16974 .17003 063	6.0080 5.9972 .9865 5.9758 .9651 .9545 .9439 .9333 5.9228 .9124 9019 8915 .8811 5.88708 .8605	643 638 633 .98629 614 619 614 609 .98604 595 590 585 .98580 575	33 32 31 30 29 28 27 26 25 24 23 22 21 20
	43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54	878 906 16935 964 16992 17021 030 17078 107 136 164 193 17222 250 279 308	123 153 .17183 243 273 303 17333 363 363 423 453 .17483 513 543	.8400 .8298 5.8197 .8095 .7994 .7894 .7794 5.7694 .7594 .7396 .7297 5.7199 .7101 .7004 .6906	565 561 98556 551 546 541 536 98531 526 521 516 511 98506 501 496	17 16 15 14 13 12 11 10 8 7 6
	60	1.17365	-17633	5.6713	98481	0

tan

COS

1	sin	tan	cot	cos			′	sin	tan	cot	cos	
o o	. 17365	. 17633	5.6713.	.98481	60	ſ	0	.19081	. 19438	5.1446	.98163	60
1 2	393 422	663 693	.6617 .6521	476 471	59 58		1 2	109 138	468 498	.1366	157 152	59 58
3	451	723	.6425	466	57	ı	3	167	529	.1207	146	57
4	479	753	.6329	461	56	- 1	4	. 195	559	.1128	140	56
5	. 17508 537	. 17783 813	5.6234	. 98455 450	55 54		5	.19224 252	. 19589 619	5.1049 .0970	.98135 129	55 54
ž	565	843	6045	445	53	1	7	281	649	.0892	124	53
8	594	873	.5951	440	52		8	309	680	.0814	118	52 l
9 10	623 . 17651	903	.5857 5.5764	435 .98430	51 50		9 10	338 .19366	710. . 19740	.0736 5.0658	112	51
ti	680	963	5671	425	49	1	ii!	395	770	.0581	.98107 101	50 49
12	708	. 17993	.5578	420	48	Н	12	423	801	.0504	096	48
13	737 766	. 18023 053	.5485	414 409	47 46	П	13	452 481	831 861	.04 <u>2</u> 7 .0350	090 084	47 46
15	.17794	18083	5.5301	.98404	45	11	15	.19509	. 19891	5.0273	.98079	45
16	823	1 112	.5209	399	44	H	16	538	921	.0197	073	44
17	852	143	.5118	394 389	43 42		·17	56 <u>6</u> 595	952	.0121	067	43
18 19	880 909	173 203	.5026	383	41	H	19	623	.19982	5.0045 4.9969	061 056	42 41
20	. 17937	. 18233	5.4845	.98378	40		20	.19652	.20042	4.9894	.98050	40
21	966	263	.4755	373	39		21	680	073	.9819	044	39
22 23	.17995	293 323	.4665 .4575	368 362	38 37	1	22	709 737	103 133	.9744	039 033	38 37
24	052	353	.4486	357	36	1	24	766	164.	.9594	027	36
25	.18081	.18384	5.4397	.98352	35	۱ ۱	25	.19794	.20194	4.9520	. 98021	35
26 27 28	109 138	414	.4308	347 341	34 33	1 1	26 27	823 851	224	.9446	016	34
28	166	474	4131	. 336	32	1 1	28	880	254 285 315	.9298	.98004	32
29	193	504	.4043	331	32 31	П	29	908		.9225	.97998	32 31
30	.18224	.18534	5.3955	.98325	30	1	30 31	.19937	.20345	4.9152	.97992	30
31	252 281	564 594	.3868	32 <u>0</u> 315	29 28	l	32	965 .19994	376 406	.9078	987 981	29 28
32 33	309	624	.3694	310	27		33	.20022	436	.8933	975	27
34	338	654	.3607	304	26	ll	34	051	466	.8860	969	26
35	. 18367 395	.18684	5.3521	. 98299	25	Н	35 36	.20079	. 20497 527	4.8788	.97963	25 24
37	424	714 74 <u>5</u> 77 <u>5</u>	.3349	288	24 23	H	37	136	557	.8644	952	23
38	452	77 <u>5</u> 805	.3263	283	22	П	38 39	163	588	.8573	946	22 21
39 40	. 18509	.18835	.3178 5.3093	.98272	21	П	40	. 20222	.20648	4.8430	940	20
41	538	865	.3008	267	19		41	250 279	679	.8359	928	19
42	567	895	.2924	261	18		42	279	709	.8288	922	18
43	595 624	925 955	.2839	256 250	17 16		43 44	307 336	739 770	.8218	916 910	17 16
45	.18652	.18986	5.2672	.98245	15		45	.20364	.20800	4.8077	.97903	15
46	681	.19016	.2588	240	14		46	393	830	.8007	899	14
47 48	710 738	046	.2505	234 229	13	П	47 48	421 450	861 891	.7937	893 887	13
49	767	106	.2339	223	Ιίί	H	49	478	921	.7798	881	Ιίί
50	.18795	. 19136	5.2257	.98218	10		50	20507	. 20952	4.7729	.97875	10
51	824	166	.2174	212	9		51 52	535 563	.20982	.7659	869 863	?
52 53	852 881	197 227	.2092	207	8 7		53	592	043	.7522	857	9 8 7 6
54	910	257	.1929	196	6		54	620	073	.7453	851	
55	.18938	19287	5.1848	.98190	5		55	. 20649	21104	4.7385	.97845	5
56 57	967 .18995	317 347	.1767	183	4	1	56 57	677 706	134	.7317	839 833	3
58	.19024	378	.1606	174	2	1	58	734	195	.7181	827	3 2
59	052	408	.1526	168		1	59	763	225	.7114	821	
60	.19081	. 19438	5.1446	.98163	10	-	60	.20791	.21256	4.7046	.97815	10
L_	СОВ	cot	tan	sin	1'	1		COS	cot	tan	sin	1

101	/-											
′	sin	tan	cot	cos				sin	tan	cot	cos	
ō	.20791	.21256	4.7046	.97815	60		0	. 22495	. 23087	4.3315	.97437	60
1	820 - 848	286 316	.6979	809 803	59 58	١.		523 552	148	.3200	430 424	59
2	877	347	.6845	797	57		3	580	148 179	.3143	417	58 57 56
4	903	377	.6779	791	56	ŀ	4	608	209	.3086	411	
5	.20933	.21408	4.6712	.97784 778	55		5	. 22637	. 23240 271	4.3029	.97404 398	55
6	962 .20990	438 469	.6646	772	54 53		7	693	301	.2916	391	54 53
8	.21019	499	.6514	766	52		18	722	332	. 2859	384	I 52
9	047	529	.6448	760	51		9	750	363	. 2803	378	51
10 11	.21076 104	.21560 590	4.6382	.97754 748	50 49		10	. 22778 807	. 23393	.2691	.9737 <u>1</u> 365	50 49
12 13	132	621	.6252	742	48	l	12	835	453	.2635	358	48
13	161	651	.6187	735	47 46		13	863 892	485 516	.2580	351 345	47
14 15	189 .21218	682	.6122 4.6057	729 .97723	45	ŀ	14	.22920	. 23547	4.2468	.97338	46 45
16	246	743	.5993	717	44		16	948	578	.2413	331	44
17	24 <u>6</u> 275	743 773	.5928	711	43		17	.22977	608	.2358	325	43
18 19	303 331	804 834	.5864	703 698	42 41		18 19	.23005 033	639 670	.2303	318 311	42 41
20	.21360	.21864	4.5736	.97692	40		20	.23062	. 23700		.97304	40
21	388	893	.5673	. 686	39		21 22	090	731	4.2193	298 291	39
22 23	417	925	.5609	680	· 38 37		22	118	762 793	2084	291 284	38 37
24	445 474	956 .21986	.5546	673	36		24	14 <u>6</u> 175	823	1976	278	36
25	.21502	.22017	4.5420	.97661	35		25	.23203	.2385 <u>4</u> 885	4.1922	.97271	35
26	530	047	.5357	653	34 33		26	231	883	.1868	264	34
27 28	559 587	078 108	.5294	648 642	32		27 28	260 288	916 946	.1814	257 251	33
29	616	139	.5232	636	31		29	316	. 23977	.1706	244	32 31
30	.21644	.22169	4.5107	.97630	30		30	.23345	.24008	4.1653	.97237	30
31 32 33	672 701	200 231	.5045	623 617	29 28		31 32	373 401	-039 069	1600 1547	230 223	29 28
33	729	261	4922	611	27		33	429	100	.1493	217	27 26
34	758	292	.4860	604	26		34	458	131	1441	210	
35 36	.21786 814	.22322	4.4799	.97598 592	25 24		35 36	. 23486 514	.24162 193	4.1388 1335	.97203 196	25 24
37	843	383	.4676	585	23 22		37	542	223 25 <u>4</u>	1282	189	23 22
38	871	414	.4615	579	22		38	571	254	.1230	182	22
39 40	899 .21928	.22475	.4553 4.4494	573 . 97566	21		39 40	599 .23627	285 . 24316	1178 4 1126	176	21 20
41	956	505	.4434	560	19		41	656	347	. 1074	.97169 162	19
42	. 21983	536	.4373	553	18		42	684	377	1022	155	18
43	. 22013	. 567 . 597	.4313 .4253	547 541	17 16		43 44	712 740	408 439	.0970 .0918	148 141	17 16
45	. 22070	.22628	4.4194	.97534	15		45	.23769	.24470	4.0867	.97134	15
46	098	658	.4134	528	14		46	797	501	-0815	127	14
47 48	12 <u>6</u> 155	689 719	.4075 .4015	52 <u>1</u> 515	13		47 48	825 853	532 562	.0764 0713	120 113	13 12
49	183	750	.3956	508	11		49	882	593	.0662	106	l if l
50	.22212	. 22781	4.3897	.97502	10	Į	50	.23910	24624	4.0611	.97100	10
51 52 53	240 268	811	.3838 .3779	496	9	-	51	938	655	.0560	093	9
53	208	842 872	.3721	489 483	8 7	Į	52 53	96 <u>6</u> . 23995	686 717	.0509 0459	086 079	8 7
54	325	903	.3662	476	6		54	.24023	747	.0408	072	6
55	. 22353	. 22934	4.3604	.97470	5		55	. 24051	24778	4.0358	.97063	5
56 57	382 410	. 22995	.3546 .3488	463 457	4	١	56 57	079 108	809 840	.0308 .0257	058 051	4 3
58	438	.23026	.3430	450	3 2	-	58	136	871	.0207	044	3 2 1
59	467	056	.3372	444	1	١	59	164	902	.0158	037	
60	.22495	. 23087	4.3313	.97437	0	ı	60	.24192	. 24933	4.0108	.97030	0
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	sin	tan	cot	cos			_′	sin	tan	cot	cos	
0	.24192	. 24933	4.0108	.97030	60		0	.25882	. 26795	3.7321	.96593	60
1 1	220	964	.0058	023	59		1	910	826	.7277	585	59
2 3	249	. 24995	4.0009	015	58 .	l	2	938	857	1.7234	578	58
1 4	277 305	. 25026 056	3.9959 .9910	.97001	57 56		3	966	888	.7191	570	57
1 1	. 24333	. 25087	3.9861	.96994		Н	5	.25994	920	.7148	562	56
5	362	118	.9812	987	55 54	Н	6	.26022 050	. 26951 . 26982	3.7105	.96555 547	55
ا ر	390	149	.9763	980	53	П	7	079	.27013	7062 7019	540	53
8	418	180	.9714	973	52	Н	8		044	.6976	532	52
9	446	211	. 9665	966	51	Н	9	10 <u>7</u> 135	076	.6933	524	51
10	.24474	. 25242	3.9617	.96959	50	Н	10	.26163	. 27107	3.6891	.96517	50
111	503	273	.9568	952	49	ı	11	191	138	.6848	509	49
12	531	304	.9520	945	48	1	12	219	169	. 6806	502	48
13	559 587	335 366	.9471 .9423	937 930	47 46	П	13	247 275	201 232	.6764 .6722	494 486	47 46
15	.24615	. 25397	3.9375	.96923	45		15	.26303	. 27263	3.6680	.96479	45
16	644	428	.9327	916	44	П	16	331	294	.6638	471	44
l iž	672	459	.9279	909 1	43		i7	359	326	.6596	463	43
18	700	490	.9232	902	42	1	18	387	357	.6554	456	42
19	728	521	.9184	894	41		19	415	388	.6512	448	41
20	. 24756	. 25552	3.9136	.96887	40	1	20	.26443	. 27419	3.6470	.96440	40
21	784	583	.9089	880	39	1	21	471	451	.6429	433	39
22	813 841	614	.904 <u>2</u> .8995	873	38 37		22 23	500 528	482 513	.6387 .6346	425 417	38 37
24	869	676	.8947	866 858	36		24	556	545	.6305	410	36
25	.24897	. 25707	3.8900	.96851	35		25	.26584	. 27576	3.6264	.96402	35
26	925	738	:8854	844	34		26	612	607	.6222	394	34
27	954	769	. 8807	837	33		27	640	638	.6181	386	33 32
28	. 24982	800	.8760	829	32	l	28	668	670	.6140	379	32
29	.25010	831	.8714	822	31	1	29	696	701	.6100	371	31
30	. 25038	. 25862	3.8667	. 96815	30	1	30	. 26724	. 27732	3.6059	.96363	30
31 32	066 094	893	.862 <u>1</u> .8575	807	29 28	ı	31 32	752 780	764 795	.6018	355 347	29 28 27
33	122	924 955	.8528	800 793	27	1	33	808	826	.5937	340	27
34	151	.25986	.8482	786	26		34	836	858	.5897	332	26
35	.25179	.26017	3.8436	.96778	25	1	35	. 26864	. 27889	3.5856	.96324	25
36	207	048	.8391	771	24	1	36	892	921	1.5816	316	24
37	235	079	.8345	764	23		37	920	952	.5776	308	23
38	263	110	.8299	756	22	ı	38	948	.27983	.5736	301	22
39	291	141	.8254	749	21	ı	39	. 26976		.5696	293	21
40	.25320	.26172	3.8208	.96742 734	20 19	1	40	.27004 032	. 28046 077	3.5656 .5616	.96285 277	20 19
42	348 376	203 235	.8118	727	18	1	42	060	109	5576	269	18
43	404	266	8073	719	liž	ı	43	088	140	.5576	261	i7
44	432	297	.8028	712	16	1	44	116	172	.5497	253	16
45	. 25460	. 26328	3.7983	.96703	15	l	45	.27144	. 28203	3.5457	.96246	15
46	488	359	.7938	697	14	1	46	172	234	.5418	238	14
47	516	390	.7893	690	13 12	1	47 48	200 228	266 297	.5379	230	13
48	545 573	421 452	.7848 7804	68 <u>2</u> 675	lii	1	49	256	329	.5300	214	lií
50	.25601	.26483	3.7760	.96667	10	1	50	27284	. 28360	3.5261	.96206	10
51	629	515	.7715	660	1 19	1.	51	312	391	.5222	198	1 29
52	657	546	.7671	653	8	ľ	52	340	423	.5183	190	8
53	685	577	.7627	645	7	ı	53	368	454	.5144	182	7
54	713	608	7583	638	6	ı	54	396	486	.5105	174	6
55	. 25741	26639	3.7539	96630	5	1	55	27424	. 28517	3.5067	.96166	5
56	769	670	.7495	623	4	1	56 57	452 480	549 580	.5028	158 150	4 3
57 58	798 826	701	.7451	615	3 2	1	58	508	612	.4951	142	1 2
59	854	764	7364	600	Ιí	1	59	536	643	4912	134	ĺî
60	25882	. 26795	3.7321	.96593	١٥	1	60	.27564	.28675	3.4874	.96126	0
	1		-	sin	 ,	1	1	COS	cot	tan	sin	
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106	° 196° 5	286° 1	6 °	TABLE.	1	_(OTLL	rnuea.	1	107	1970 2	37°
_ ′	sin	tan	cot	COS			•	sin	tan	cot	cos	
0	.27564	.28675	3.4874	96126	60		0	29237	30573	3.2709	95630	60
1	592	706	.4836	118	59	П	1	265 293	603 637	.2675	622 613	59
2	620 648	738 769	4798	110	58 57		2	321	669	.2607	605	20 57
4	676	801	.4760 .4722	094	56		4	348	700	.2573	596	58 57 56
5	.27704	.28832	3.4684	.96086	55	1	5	. 29376	30732	3.2539	.95588	55
6	731	864	.4646	078	54		6	404	764	.2506	570	54 53 52
7	759	895	.4608	070	53		7	432	796	.2472	571	53
8	787 815	927 958	.4570 .4533	.062 054	52 51		8	460 487	828 860	.2438	562 554	51
10	.27843	.28990	3,4495	.96046	50		10	. 29515	.30891	3.2371	.95545	50
Ϊĭ	871	29021	.4458	037	49		īĭ	543	923	.2338	536	49
12	899	053	.4420	029	48		12	571	955	.2305	528	48
13 14	92 <u>7</u> 95 <u>5</u>	084	.4383	021 013	47 46		13	599 626	.30987 .31019	.2272	519 511	47 46
15		116	.4346	.96005	45	ı	15	. 29654	.31051	3.2205	.95502	45
16	.27983 :28011	.29147 179	3.4308	.95997	44	ı	16	682	083	.2172	493	44
17	039	210	.4234	989	43		17	710	113	.2139	485	43
18	067	242	.4197	981	42	l	18	737	147	.2106	476	42
19	095	274	.4160	972	41		19	765 .29793	178 .31210	.2073	467 .95459	41 40
.20	. 28123 150	.29305 337	3.4124	.95964 956	39	1	20 21	821	242	.2008	450	30
21 22 23	178	368	.4050	948	38	1	22	849	274	.1975	441	38
23	206	400	.4014	940	37	1	23	876	306	.1943	433	·37
24	234	432	.3977	931	36	1	24	. 904 29932	338	.1910	424 .95415	36 35
25 26	.28262 290	.2946 <u>3</u> 495	3.3941	.9592 <u>3</u> 915	35 34	1	25 26	960	402	.1845	407	34
27	318	526	3868	907	33	1	1 27	.29987	434	.1813	398	33 32 31
28	346	558	.3868 .3832	898	32	l	28	.30015	466	.1780	389	32
29	374	590	.3796	890	31		29	043	498	.1748	380	
30 31	.28402 429	.29621 653	3.3759	.95882 874	30 29	l	30	.30071	.31530 562	3.1716	.95372 363	30
32	457	685	.3687	865	28	l	32	126	594	1652	354	29 28 27 26
33	485	716	.3652	857	28 27	l	32 33	154	626	.1620	345	27
34	513	748	.3616	849	26	l	34	182	658	.1588	337	
35 36	. 28541 569	.29780 811	3.3580	. 95841 832	25		35	.30209	.31690 722	3.1556	.95328	25
37	597		3509	824	24 23 22	l	37	237 265	754	1492	310	24 23 22 21
38	59 <u>7</u> 625	84 <u>3</u> 875	.3473	816	22	l	38	292	786	.1460	301	22
39	652	906	.3438	807	21	1	39	320	818	.1429	293	
40 41	. 28680 708	.29938	3.3402	.95799 791	20 19	1	40	.30348	.318 <u>5</u> 0 882	3.1397	. 9528 <u>4</u> 275	20 19
42	736	.30001	.3332	782	18	ı	42	403	914	1334	260	1 18
43	764	033	.3297	774	17	ŀ	43	431	946	.1303	257	17
44	792	063	.3261	766	16	1	44	459	.31978	.1271	248	16
45 46	. 28820 847	.30097 128	3.3226	.95757 749	15 14		45 46	.30486	.32010 042	3.1240	.95240	15 14
47	875	160	.3156	749	13	١	47	542	074	1178	222	113
48	903	192	.3122	732	12	1	48	.570	106	.1146	213	13
49	931	224	.3087	724	11		49	597	139	.1115	204	11
50	.28959 .28987	.30255 287	3.3052	.95715	10		50	.30625	.32171	3.1084	.95195 186	10
51 52 53	.29015	319	2983	698		ı	51 52	680	203	.1053	177	١٨
53	042	351	. 2948	690	8 7	ŀ	53	708	267	.0991	168	9 8 7 6
. 54	070	382	. 2914	681	6	١.	54	736	299	.0961	159	
-55 56	.29098 126	.30414	3.2879	.95673	5	١	55	.30763	363	3.0930	.95150	5 4 3 2 1
56 57 58	154	478	.2811	656	3 2	1	56 57	791 819	396	.0899	142 133	4
58	182	509	.2777	647	2	1	58	846	428	.0838	124	2
59	209	541	.2743	639	1	1	59	874	460	.0807	115	
60	.29237	.30573	3.2709	.95630	0	1	60	.30902	.32492	3.0777	. 95106	0
Ŀ	cos	cot	tan	sin	′	J	L	cos	cot	tan	sin	1'
401	90 2520	9499 7	20				. –		100	O 400		7

1.10	° 200°	290° 2	O	TABLE	1
•	sin	tan	cot	cos	
0	.34202	.36397	2.74 <u>7</u> 5 .74 <u>5</u> 0 .7425	93969	60
1	229	430	.7450	959 949	59 58
2 3	284	463 496	.7400	939	57
4	311	529	.7376	929	56
5	.34339	.36562	2.7351	93919	55
6	366 393	59 5 628	.7326 .7302	909 899	54
6 7 8 9	421	661	.7277	889	53 52
	448	694	.7253	879	51
10	. 34475	.36727	2.7228	.93869	50
12	503 530	760 793	.7204	859 849	49 48
11 12 13 14	557	793 826	.7179 .7155 .7130	839 829	47
	584	859	.7130		46
15 16	.34612 639	3689 <u>2</u> 925	2.7106	93819 809	45 44
17	666	958 .36991 .37024	.7058	799	43 42
18	694	.36991	.7034	789 779	42
19	721 .34748		.7009		41
20	775	37057	2.6985 .6961	93769 759	40 39
21 22 23	775 803	090 123 157	.6937	748	38
23 24	830 857	157 190	.6913 .6889	738 728	37
25	. 34884	.37223	2.6865	.93718	36 35
26 27	912	256	.6841	708	34
27	939	289 322	.6818	698 688 677	33
28 29	966 . 34993	322	.6794 .6770	688	32 31
30	.35021	37388	2.6746	.93667	30
31	048	42 <u>2</u> 455 488	.6723	657	29 28
32 33	075 102	455	.6699	647 637	28 27
34	130	521	.6675 .6652	626	26
35	.35157	.37554	2.6628	.93616	25
36 37	184	588	.6605	606	25 24 23 22 21
38	211 239	654	6558	585	22
38 39	266	621 654 687	.6581 .6558 .6534	596 585 575	
40	.35293	. 37720	2.6511	.9356 <u>5</u> 555	20
41 42	320 347	754 787	. 6488 6464	555 544	19 18
43	347 375	787 820	.6441	534	17
44	402	853	.6418	524	16
45 46	. 35429 456	.37887 920	2.639 5 .6371	.93514 503	15 14
47	484	953	.6348	493 [13
48 49	511 538	.37986 .38020	.6325 .6302	483	12 11
50	. 35565	.38053	2.6279	472 .93462	10
51	592	086	6256	452	
51 52 53	619	120	.6233	441	9 8 7
54	647 674	153 186	.6210 •.6187	431 420	6
55	.35701	.38220	2.6165	.93410	5
56	728	253	.6142	400	4
57 58	755 782 810	286 320	.6119	389 379	5 4 3 2 1
59		353	.6074	368	ĩ
60	. 35837	.38386	2.6051	. 93358	. 0
	ÇOS.	cot	tan .	sin	7
			Oo		-

-		Con	tinued.	2	1° 111	° 201° 2	91°	
_		1	sin	tan	cot	cos		Ì
		0	. 35837 864	.38386 420	2.6051	. 93358 348	60 59	ı
		2	891	453 487	.6006	337	58	ĺ
	ŀ	3 4	918 945	487 520	.5983	327 316	57 56	l
		5	. 35973	38553	2 5938	. 93306	55	١
		6 7	.36000	587 620	.5916 .5893	29 <u>5</u> 285	54	l
		- 8	027 054	654	.5871	274	53 52	ı
		9 10	081 36108	. 687 . 38721	.5848	264 .93253	51 50	l
		- 11	135	754	.5804	243	49	l
		12	162 190	787 821	.5782 .5759	232 222	48 47	l
ĺ		14	217	854.	.5737	211	46	l
		15	36244	38888	2.5715	.93201	45 44	l
		16 17	271 298	921 955	.5693 .5671	190 180	43	ı
		18 19	325 352	38988 .39022	.5649 .5627	169 159	42 41	l
į		20	.36379	.39055	2.5605	93148	40	l
		l 21 l	406 434	089	. 5583 5561	137	39 38 37	l
1		22 23	461	122 156	.5539 .5517	127 116	37	ı
		24	488	190		106	36	l
Ì	١.,	25 26	.36513 542	.39223 257 290	2.5495 5473	93093 084	35 34	ı
		I 27 I	569	290	5473 .5452	074	33 32	l
		28 29	596 623	324 357	.5430 .5408	063 052	31	ı
		30	. 36650	.39391	2 5386	93042	30	l
		31 32	677 704	425 458	.5365	031 020 ·	29 28	l
		33	731	492	.5322	.93010	27	ı
		34 35	758 .36785	526 .39559	.5300 2.5279	·.92999 .92988	26 25	ı
		36	812	593	.5257	978	24	l
	1	37 38	839 867	626 660	.5236	967 956	23 22	ı
		39	894	694	.5193	945	21	l
		40 41	.36921 948	.39727	2.5172	. 9293 5 924	20 19	
		42	.36975 .37002	76 <u>1</u> 795	.5150 .5129	913 902	18	ı
		43 44	029	829 862	5108	902 892	17 16	l
		45	.37056	.39896	2.5065	.92881	15	ı
		46 47	083 110	930 963	.5044 5023	870 859	14	ı
		48	137	.39997	.5023 .5002	849	13 12	l
		49 50	164 .37191	.40031	.4981 2.4960	838 .92827	11 10	ı
		51	218	098	.4939	816	9	l
		52 53	245 272	132 166	.4918 4897	805 794	8 7 6	Į.
		54	299	200	.4876	784	6	l
		55 56	.37326 353	.40234 267	2.4855 4834	.92773 762	5	١
		57	380.	301·	. 4813	751	3	ı
		56 57 58 59	407 434	335 369	.4792	740 729	3 2 1	۱
ĺ		60	.37461	.40403	2.4751	.92718	ò	
•			COS	cot	tan	sin		

-114	112 202 292 22 1AB					٠.`		inueu.	23	113	° 203° 2	93°		
-	sin	tan	cot	cos] -	<u></u>	sin	tan	cot	COS			
0	. 37461	. 40403	2.4751	.92718	60		0	1.39073	. 42447	2.3559	.92050	60		
1	48 <u>8</u> 515	436 470	.4730	707	59		1	100	482	.3539	039	59 58 57		
2	542	504	. 4709	697 68 <u>6</u>	58 57		2	127 153	516 55 <u>1</u>	.3520	028 016	28		
4	569	538	.4668	675	56		4	180	585	.3483	. 92005	56		
5	. 37595	. 40572	2.4648	.92664	55		5	. 39207	.42619	2.3464	.91994	55		
6 7	622 649	606 640	.4627	653	54 53		6	234	654	.3445	982	54		
8	676	674	.4606	642 631	52		7 8	260 287	688	.3426	971 959	23		
, ğ	703	707	.4566	620	5ĩ		ğ	314	722 757	.3388	948	53 52 51		
10	. 37730	.40741	2.4545	.92609	50		10	. 39341	.42791	2.3369	.91936	50		
11	757 784	775 809	.4523	598	49		11	367	826	.3351	923	49		
12 13	811	843	.4504	587 576	48 47		12	394 421	860 894	.3332	914 902	48 47		
14	838	877	.4464	565	46		14	448	929	.3294	891	46		
15	. 37863	.40911	2.4443	.92554	45		15	. 39474	.42963	2.3276	.91879	45		
16 17	892 919	945	.4423	543 532	44		16 17	501	.42998 .43032	.3257	868	44		
18	946	.41013	.4383	521	42		18	528 555	067	.3238	85 <u>6</u> 845	43 42		
19	973.	047	.4362	510	41		19	581	101	.3201	833	41		
20	. 37999	.41081	2.4342	.92499	40		20	. 39608	.43136	2.3183	.91822	40		
21 22	.38026 053	113	.4322	488 477	39	П	21	633 661	17 <u>0</u> 205	.3164	810 799	39		
23	080	183	.4282	466	38 37	П	23	688	239	3127	787	38 37		
24	107	217	.4262	453	36		24	713	274	.3109	775	36		
25	.38134	.41251	2.4242	.92444	35	H	25	. 39741	.43308	2.3090	.91764	35		
26 27	161	285 319	.4222	432 421	34 33		26 27	76 <u>8</u> 795	343 378	.3072	752 741	34		
28	215	353	.4182	410	33 32	Н	28	822	412	.3035	729	33 32		
29	241	.387	.4162	399	31	l ,	29	848	447	.3017	718	31		
30 31	. 38268 295	.41421 455	.4142	.92388 377	30 29		30 31	. 39875 902	.43481 516	2,2998	.91706 694	30 29		
32	322	490	1 .4102	366	28		32	928	550	.2962	683	28		
33	349	524	.4083	353	28 27		33	953	585	.2944	671	28 27		
34	376	558	.4063	343	26		34 35	. 39982	620 .43654	. 2925	660	26 25		
35 .	.38403 .430	.41592	2.4043	.92332 321	25 24	. 1	36	. 4000 <u>8</u> 035	689	. 2889	.91648	24		
37	456	660	.4004	310	23 22		37	062	724	.2871	63 <u>6</u> 625	24 23		
38 39	483 510	694 728	.3984	299 287	22 21		38 39	08 <u>8</u> 115	758 793	.2853	613 601	22 21		
40	.38537	.41763	2.3945	.92276	20		40	.40141	.43828	2.2817	.91590	20		
41	564	797	.3925	265	19	ı	41	168	862	.2799	578	19		
42	591	831	.3906	254	18		42	195	897	.2781	566	18		
43 44	617 644	865 899	.3886 .3867	243 231	17 16		43 44	221 248	932 . 43966	-276 <u>3</u> -274 <u>5</u>	553 543	17 16		
45	.38671	.41933	2.3847	.92220	15		45	. 40275	.44001	2.2727	.91531	15		
46	698	.41968	.3828	209	14		46	301	036	.2709	519	14		
47	69 <u>8</u> 725 752	. 42002	.3808	.198 186	13 12		47 48	32 <u>8</u> 355	071 105	.2691	508 496	13 12		
48 49	778	036 070	.3789 .3770	175	11		49	381	140	.2655	484	l ii l		
50	.38805	.42103	2.3750	.92164	10	ı	50	. 40408	.44175	2.2637	.91472	10		
51	832	139	.3731	152	9		51	434	210	.2620	461	9		
52	859 886	173	.3712	141 130	8 7		52 53	461 488	244 279	.2602	449 437	8 7		
51 52 53 54	912	242	.3673	119	6		54	514	314	.2566	425	6		
55	.38939	.42276	2.3654	.92107	5	1	55	. 40541	.44349	2.2549	.91414	5		
56 57	966	310	.3635	096	4		56 57	567	384	:2531	402 390	4		
57 58	.38993 .39020	345 379	.3616 .3597	085 073	3		58	594 621	418 453	.2496	378	4 3 2		
59	046	413	.3578	062	· Î		59	647	488	.2478	366	1		
60	.39073	.42447	2.3559	.92050	0		60	. 40674	.44523	2.2460	.91355	0		
	cos	cot	tan	sin	•			COB	cot	tan	sin			
157			7°		-	à	1		6	6° 156	246° 3	36°		
			157° 247° 337° 67° 241 66° 156° 246° 336°											

	<u> </u>	294 2	4	TABLE			Con		2	9 115	2050 2	496°
<u> -</u>	sin	tan	cot	cos	<u> </u>	ŀ		sin	tan	cot	cos	
0	. 40674	.44523	2.2460	.91355	60	ı	0	1.42262	.46631	2.1445	.90631	60
1	700	558 593	.2443	343	59 58 57		1 1	288	666	.1429	618	59
3	727 753	627	.2425	331 319	28	ł	3	315	702 737	:1413	606 594	58 57
4	780	662	.2390	307	56	1	1 4	367	772	1380	582	56
5	.40806	.44697	2,2373	.91295	55	ı	5	42394	.46808	2.1364	.90569	55
6	833	732	.2355	283	54	1	6	420	843	.1348	557	54
7	860	767	.2338	272	53	ı	7	446	879	.1332	. 545	1 53
8	886	802	.2320	260	54 53 52 51		8	473	914	.1315	532	52
	913	837	.2303	248		١.	9	499	930	.1299	520	51
10	. 40939 966	.44872	2.2286	.91236	50 49	ı	10	. 42525 552	.46985	2.1283	.90507	50
12	.40992	942	2251	224	48	ı	12	578	.47021 056	.1251	495 483	49
13	.41019	.44977	.2234	200	47	ı	13	-604	092	1235	470	47
14	045	.45012	.2216	188	46		14	631	128	.1219	458	46
15	.41072	.45047	2.2199	.91176	45	ı	15	. 42657	.47163	2.1203	.90446	45
16	098	082	.2182	164	44	1	16	683	199	.1187	433	44
17	123 151	117	.2165	152 140	43 42	ı	17	709 736	234 270	.1171	421	43 42
1 19	178	187	.2130	128	41	ı	1 19	762	305	.1155	408 396	41
20	.41204	.45222	2.2113	.91116	40	ĺ	20	. 42788	.47341	2,1123	.90383	40
21	231	257	.2096	104	39		21	813	377	1.1107	371	39
22	257	292	.2079	092	38		22	841	412	.1092	358	38
23 24	284 310	327	2062	080	37	ı	23	867	448	.1076	346	37
25	.41337	362 .45397	.2045	068	36	ı	24	894	483	.1060-	334	36
26	363	432	2028	.91056 044	35 34		25 26	. 42920 946	.47519 555	2.1044	.90321	35
26 27	390	467	1994	032	33		27	972	590	1013	296	34 33
28	416	502	1977	020	33 32	١.	28	. 42999	626	0997	284	1 32
29	443	538	1960	.91008	31		29	.43025	662	.0981	271	31
80 31	.41469 496	.45573	2.1943	90996	30		30	. 43051	.47698	2.0965	.90259	30
32	522	608	.1926	984 972	29		31	077 104	733 769	.0930	246 233	29 28
33	549	678	1892	960	28 27	ı	33	130	805	.0918	221	27
34	575	713	1876	948	26		34	156	840	.0903	208	26
35	.41602	.45748	2.1859	.90936	25	ı	35	.43182	.47876	2.0887	.90196	25
36	628	784	.1842	924	24		36	209	912	.0872	183	24
37	655 681	819 854	1825 1808	911 899	23 22		37 38	235	948	.0856	171	23
38 39	, 707	889	1792	887	21		39	261 · 287	.48019	.0840	158 146	22 21
40	.41734	. 45924	2.1775	.90875	20		40	.43313	.48055	2.0809	.90133	20
41	760	960	1758	863	19		41	340	091	0794	120	19
42	787	.45995	1742	851	18		42	366	127	.0778	108	18
43 44	813 840	.46030	1725	839 826	17		43	392	163	.0763	095	17
45	.41866.	.46101	2.1692	.90814	16 15	•	45	418 . 43445	198 . 48234	.0748	082	16
46	892	136	.1675	802	14		46	471	270	2.0732	.90070 057	15 14
47	919	171	1659	790	13		47	497.	306	.0701	045	13
48	945	206	.1642	778	12		48	523	342	.0686	045 032	12
49 50	. 972	242	.1625	766	11		49	549	378	.0671	019	11
	.41998 .42024	. 46277 312	2.1609 .1592	.90753 741	10		50	. 43575 602	. 48414 450	2.0655	.90007	10
51 52	051	348	.1576	729	8		51 52	628	450 486	.0640	. 89994 981	9
53	077	348 383	.1560	717	7		53	654	521	.0609	968	8 7
54	104	418	.1543	704	. 6		54	680	557	.0594	956	6
55	.42130.	.46454	2.1527	.90692	5		55	. 43706	.48593	2.0579	. 89943	5
56 57	156 183	489 525	.1510	680 668	4 3		56 57	733	629	.0564	930	4
58	209	560	1478	655	2		58	75 <u>9</u> 785	665 701	.0549	918 905	3 2
59	235	595	.1461	643	ī	ı	59	811	737	.0518	892	í
60	.42262	.46631	2.1445	.90631	0	Ì	60	. 43837	. 48773	2.0503	.89879	ö
_	cos	cot	tan	sin	,	1		cos	cot			
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	sin	tan	cot :	cos				sin	tan	cot	cos	
0	.43837	.48773	2.0503	.89879	60		0	. 45399	.50953	1.9626	.89101	60
1	863 889	809 845	.0488	867.	59		1	425	.50989	.9612	087	59
2	916	881	.0473 .0458	854 841	58 57		2	451	.51026	.9598	074	58
4	942	917	.0443	828	56	ı	3	477 503	.063 .099	.9584 .9570	061 048	57
5	.43968	48953	2.0428	.89816	55	l	5	.45529				
6	.43994	.48989	.0413	803	54		6	554	,51136 173	1.9556	. 89035 021	55 54
7	.44020	.49026	.0398	790	53		7	580	209	.9528	.89008	53
8	'046	062	.0383	777	52 l		8	606	246	.9514	.88995	52
9	072	098	.0368	764	51		9	632	283	.9500	981	51
10	.44098	.49134	2.0353	.89752	50	1	10	. 45658	.51319	1.9486	.88968	50
11	124	- 170	.0338	739	49	H	11	684	356	.9472	955	49
12	151	. 206 242	.0323	726	48		12	710	393	.9458	942	48
13 14	177 203	278	.0293	713 700	47 46		13 14	736 762	430 467	.94441 .9430	928	47
15	.44229	.49315	2.0278	.89687	45		15	. 45787	.51503		915	46
16	255	351	.0263	674	44		16	813	540	1.9416	.88902 888	45 44
i i i i	281	387	.0248	662	43		17	839	577	9388	875	43
18	307	423	.0233	649	42		18	865	614	.9375	862	42
19	333	459	.0219	636	41		19	891	651	.9361	848	41
20	.44359	.49495	2.0204	.89623	40	1	20	. 45917	.51688	1.9347	.88835	40
21	385	532	.0189	610	39	ı	21	942	724	.9333	822	39
22	411	568	.0174	597 584	38 37	H	22	968	761	.9319	808	38
23 24	437 464	604	.0160	571	36	l	23 24	.45994	798 835	.9306	793 782	37 36
25	.44490	.49677	2.0130	.89558	35		25	.46046	.51872	1.9278	.88768	35
26	516	713	.0115	545	24	1	26	072	909	.9265	755	34
27	542	749	.0101	532	33	П	27	097	946	.9251	741	33
28	568	786	.0086	519	32	П	28	123	.51983	.9237	728	32
29	594	822	.0072	506	31	Н	29	149	.52020	. 9223	713	31
30	.44620	.49858	2.0057	.89493	30		30	. 46175	.52057	1.9210	.88701	30
31	646	894	.0042	'480	29	H	31	201	094	.9196	688	29
32 33	672 698	931 .49967	.0028	467 454	28 27	li	32 33	226 252	131 168	.9183 .9169	674 661	28 27
34	724	.50004	1.9999	441	26		34	278	205	.9155	647	26
35	.44750	.50040	1.9984	.89428	25	Н	35	. 46304	.52242	1.9142	.88634	25
36	776	076	.9970	415	24.	l	36	330	279	.9128	620	24
37	802	113	.9955	402	23		37	355	316	.9113	607	23
38	828	149	.9941	389	22	ı	38	381	353	.9101	593	22
39	854	185	.9926	\376	21		39	407	390	.9088	580	21
40	. 44880	.50222	1.9912	.89363 350	20 19		40	. 46433 458	.52427 464	1.9074	. 88566	20 19
41 42	906 932	25 <u>8</u> 295	.9883	337	18		41 42	484	501	.9047	553 539	18
43	958	331	.9868	324	l 17		43	510	538	9034	526	l iř l
44	.44984	368	.9854	311	16		44	536	575	.9020	512	16
45	.45010	.50404	1.9840	. 89298	15		45	. 46561	.52613	1.9007	. 88499	15
46	036	441	.9825	285	14		46	587	650	. 8993	485	14
47	062	477	.9811	272	13	1	47	613	687	.8980	472	1.3
48 49	088 114	514 550	.9797	259 245	12		48 49	639 664	724 761	.8967 .8953	45 <u>8</u> 445	12 11
50	. 45140	.50587	1.9768	89232	10		50	.46690	.52798	1.8940	.88431	10
51	166	623	.9754	219	1 10		51	716	836	.8927	417	10
52	192	660	.9740	-206	8		52	742	873	.8913	404	8
53	218	696	9725	193	7	1	53	767	910	.8900	390	7
54	243	733	.9711	180	6	1	54	793	947	. 8887	377	6
55	.45269	.50769	1.9697	.89167	5	1	55	.46819	.52985	1.8873	.88363	5
56	295	806	.9683	153	4 3	ı	56 57	844 870	.53022	.8860	349	4
57 58	321 347	843 879	.9669	140	2	ı	58	896	096	.8834	322	3 2
59	373	916	.9640	114	Ιí		59	921	134	.8820	308	ĺ
60	.45399	.50953	1.9626	1	اه	1	60	.46947	.53171	1.8807	. 88293	0
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L	COS	cot	tan	sin	<u></u>	j		cos	cot	tan	sin	1

2 4699 0 246 8781 267 58 2 532 507 88016 434 55 3 47024 2 283 8768 254 57 58 2 532 507 88016 434 55 4 47024 2 283 8768 254 57 3 3 557 545 8003 420 55 5 47076 5 53358 1.8741 88226 55 5 5 66 634 659 7966 377 57 6 101 395 8728 2113 199 33 7 659 697 7954 303 332 187 59 79 436 664 659 7966 377 354 303 8 153 470 8702 185 52 8 669 470 677 774 77930 333 55 507 8689 172 51 9 710 774 77930 333 55 10 47204 53545 1.8676 88518 80 10 10 48735 .55812 1.7917 774 77930 333 55 11 229 582 8663 144 49 11 761 850 7905 306 44 12 255 620 8650 130 48 12 74 77 74 77 13 811 926 7881 278 41 13 281 657 8637 117 47 13 811 926 7881 278 41 14 306 694 8624 103 46 14 8809 45 15 8888 769 879 8898 769 879 8898 45 18 888 769 879 8898 81 48 888 769 8898 86 64 18 888 860 19 88 86 18 18 889 89 88 18 18 18 89 89 88 18 18 18 89 89 88 18 18 18 89 89 88 18 18 18 89 89 88 18 18 18 89 89 88 18 18 18 89 8	118	3° 208°	298° 2	8°	TABLE	Ι	_	Con	tinued.	2	9 119	° 209° 2	99°
7	•	sin	tan	cot	cos]	1	sin	tan	cot	COS	
4 050 320 8755 240 56 4 583 583 .7991 406 56 6 101 395 8728 1213 54 6 634 655021 1.7979 87391 51 7 127 422 8715 199 53 7 664 634 6367 77954 335 5 9 178 507 .8689 172 51 9 710 774 .7930 335 5 10 .47204 .55245 1.8676 88158 80 10 48735 .55812 1.7917 87321 66 11 229 582 8663 1130 48 11 761 850 7905 305 41 12 255 620 .8657 117 47 13 8811 2926 .7881 278 24 13 281 .769 .8998 075 44 </td <td>1</td> <td>973 . 46999</td> <td>208 246</td> <td>.8794 .8781</td> <td>281 267</td> <td>59 58</td> <td></td> <td>1 2</td> <td>506 532</td> <td>469 507</td> <td>.8028 .8016</td> <td>448 434</td> <td>60 59 58 57</td>	1	973 . 46999	208 246	.8794 .8781	281 267	59 58		1 2	506 532	469 507	.8028 .8016	448 434	60 59 58 57
6 101 395 8728 213 54 6 6 634 659 7966 377 75 7 127 432 8715 199 53 7 659 697 7954 363 55 8 153 470 8702 185 52 8 684 736 7942 349 55 9 178 507 8689 172 51 9 710 774 7790 335 51 0 47204 53345 1.8676 88158 50 10 47204 53345 1.8676 88158 50 10 47204 53345 1.8676 88158 50 10 47204 53345 1.8676 88158 50 10 48735 .55812 1.7917 87321 50 11 225 56 620 8650 130 48 12 786 888 8783 292 44 14 306 694 8624 103 46 14 837 .55964 7868 264 44 15 47332 .537322 1.8611 88089 45 15 15 48862 .56003 1.7856 87250 44 16 888 769 8598 075 44 16 888 041 77856 87250 44 17 383 807 8858 062 43 17 913 079 7832 221 44 19 434 882 .8559 034 41 19 964 156 .7808 193 41 19 434 882 .8559 034 41 19 964 156 .7808 193 41 19 434 882 .8559 034 41 19 964 156 .7808 193 42 14 486 957 .8533 .88006 39 21 .49014 .232 .7783 164 32 22 511 .53995 .8520 .87993 38 22 040 20 .47860 5390 7.7832 221 3537 .54032 .8507 99 37 32 3 045 309 .77759 136 33 25 4562 070 .8495 965 36 24 009 .347 .7747 121 36 33 26 6 614 145 .8469 937 34 26 614 14 55 .8469 937 34 26 614 14 14 14 14 14 14 14 14 14 14 14 14 1	4	050	320	.8753	240	56		4	583	583	.7991	406	56
10	6 7 8	101 127 153	395 432 470	.8728 .8715 .8702	213 199 185	54 53 52		6 7 8	634 659 684	659 697 736	.7966 .7954 .7942	377 363 349	55 54 53 52 51
11 229 582 8663 144 49 11 761 855 7905 306 48 13 281 657 8637 117 47 13 811 292 7881 292 44 14 306 694 8624 103 46 14 837 55964 7888 228 44 15 47332 53732 1.8611 88089 45 15 48862 56003 1.7856 82750 41 16 358 769 8598 075 44 16 888 041 .7844 225 4 17 383 807 8585 062 43 17 913 079 7832 221 4 19 434 882 8559 034 41 19 964 156 7808 193 4 20 47460 53920 187993 38 22	-												51 50
15	11 12 13	229 255 281	582 620 657	.8650 .8637	144 130 117	49 48 47		11 12 13	761 786 811	850 888 926	.7905 .7893 .7881	306 292 278	49 48 47 46
19	15 16 17	. 47332 358 383	.53732 769 807	1.8611 .8598 8583	88089 075 062	45 44 43		15 16 17	. 48862 888 913	.56003 041 079	1.7856 .7844 .7832	.87250 235 221	45 44 43
21 486 957 8533 88006 39 21 .49014 232 .7783 164 32 22 511 .53995 8520 .87993 38 22 040 270 .7771 150 33 24 562 070 .8495 965 36 24 090 347 .7747 121 36 25 .47588 54107 1.8482 .87951 35 25 49116 .56385 1.7735 .87107 38 26 614 145 .8469 937 34 26 141 424 .7723 .093 32 28 665 220 .8443 909 32 28 192 501 .7699 064 33 29 690 .258 .8430 896 31 29 217 539 .7687 050 31 31 741 .333 .8405 8868	19	434	882	.8559	034	41		19	964	156	.7808	193	41
25 .47588 54107 1.8482 .87951 35 25 49116 .56385 1.7735 .87107 38 26 614 145 .8469 937 34 26 141 424 .7723 093 32 27 639 183 .8456 923 33 27 166 462 .7711 079 32 29 660 258 .8443 909 32 28 192 501 .7699 064 33 30 .47716 .54296 1.8418 .87882 30 30 .49242 .56577 1.7675 .87036 38 31 .7741 333 .8405 .868 29 31 268 616 .7663 021 22 32 .767 .371 .8392 .854 28 32 293 .654 .7651 .87007 28 35 .47844 .54484 1.8354 <td>21 22 23</td> <td>486 511 537</td> <td>957 .53995 .54032</td> <td>.8533 .8520 .8507</td> <td>.88006 .87993 979</td> <td>39 38 37</td> <td></td> <td>21 22 23</td> <td>.49014 040 045</td> <td>232 270 309</td> <td>.7783 .7771 .7759</td> <td>1<u>64</u> 150 136</td> <td>39 38 37</td>	21 22 23	486 511 537	957 .53995 .54032	.8533 .8520 .8507	.88006 .87993 979	39 38 37		21 22 23	.49014 040 045	232 270 309	.7783 .7771 .7759	1 <u>64</u> 150 136	39 38 37
28 665 220 8443 909 32 28 192 501 .7699 064 32 29 690 258 8430 896 31 29 217 539 .7687 050 3 30 47716 .54296 1.8418 .87882 30 30 49242 .56577 1.7675 .87036 38 31 741 333 8405 868 29 31 268 616 .7663 021 22 32 767 371 8392 840 27 33 318 693 .7639 .86993 22 34 818 446 .8367 826 26 34 344 731 7627 978 22 35 .47844 .54484 1.8354 .87812 25 35 49369 5.5769 1.7615 .86964 22 37 895 560 .8329 784 <td>25</td> <td>. 47588</td> <td>54107</td> <td>1.8482</td> <td>.87951</td> <td>35</td> <td></td> <td>25</td> <td>49116</td> <td>.56385</td> <td>1.7735</td> <td>.87107</td> <td>35</td>	25	. 47588	54107	1.8482	.87951	35		25	49116	.56385	1.7735	.87107	35
30 .47716 .54296 1.8418 .87882 30 30 .49242 .56577 1.7675 .87036 32 31 741 333 8405 868 29 31 268 616 .7663 021 22 33 793 409 8379 840 27 33 318 693 .7639 86993 22 34 818 446 .8367 826 26 34 344 731 7627 978 22 35 .47844 .54844 1.8354 87812 25 35 .49369 .56769 1.7615 86964 22 36 869 522 .8341 798 24 36 394 808 .7603 949 22 38 920 397 8316 770 22 38 445 885 .7579 921 22 39 946 635 8303 756 <td>26 27 28</td> <td>63<u>9</u> 663</td> <td>183 220</td> <td>.8456 .8443</td> <td>923 909</td> <td>33 32</td> <td></td> <td>28</td> <td>166 192</td> <td>462 501</td> <td>.7711 .7699</td> <td>079 064</td> <td>34 33 32</td>	26 27 28	63 <u>9</u> 663	183 220	.8456 .8443	923 909	33 32		28	166 192	462 501	.7711 .7699	079 064	34 33 32
32 767 371 8392 854 28 32 293 654 7.7631 87007 22 33 793 409 8379 840 27 33 318 693 7239 86993 22 35 .47844 .54484 1.8354 .87812 25 35 .49369 .56769 1.7615 .86964 22 36 869 522 .8341 798 24 36 394 808 .7603 949 22 37 895 560 .8329 784 23 37 419 846 .7591 935 22 38 920 597 8316 770 22 38 445 885 .7579 991 22 40 .47971 .54673 1 8291 87743 20 40 .49495 .56962 1.7556 86892 22 41 .47997 711 .8278	30	.47716	.54296	1.8418	.87882	30		30	. 49242	.56577	1.7675	.87036	30
35 .47844 .54484 1.8354 .87812 25 35 .49369 .56769 1.7615 .86964 22 36 869 522 .8341 798 24 36 394 808 .7603 949 22 37 895 560 .8329 784 23 37 419 .846 .7591 935 22 38 920 597 8316 770 22 38 445 885 .7579 991 22 39 946 .655 88030 .756 21 39 470 923 .7567 906 21 41 .47997 711 .8278 729 19 41 521 .57000 .7544 878 19 41 .47997 711 .8278 729 19 41 521 .57000 .7544 878 19 42 .48022 .748 .8265 715	32 33	767 793	371 409	.8392 .8379	854 840	28 27		32 33	293 318	654 693	.7651 .7639	.87007 .86993	28 27
39 946 635 8303 756 21 39 470 923 .7567 906 21 40 .47971 .54673 1 8291 87743 20 40 .49495 .56962 1.7556 .86892 20 41 .47997 711 8278 729 19 41 521 .57000 .7544 878 19 42 .48022 .748 .8265 .715 18 42 .546 039 .7532 .863 11 44 .073 .824 .8240 .687 16 .44 .596 .116 .7508 .834 16 45 .48099 .54862 1.8228 .87673 .16 .45 .49622 .57155 1.7495 .86820 .11 46 .124 .900 .8215 .659 .14 .46 .647 .193 .7485 .8620 .11 47 .150 <	35	.47844	.54484	1.8354	.87812	25		35	.49369	.56769	1.7615	.86964	25
40 .47971 .54673 1 8291 87743 20 40 .49495 .56962 1.7556 .86892 20 41 .47997 711 .8278 729 19 41 521 .57000 .7544 878 11 42 .48022 748 .8265 715 18 42 546 039 .7520 849 12 43 .048 786 .8253 701 17 43 571 078 .7520 849 17 44 .073 .824 .8240 687 16 44 596 116 .7508 834 16 45 .48099 .54862 1.8228 87673 15 45 49622 .57155 1.7496 .86820 47 150 .938 8202 645 13 47 672 232 .7473 791 1 49 .201 .55013 .8177	38	893 920	560 597	.8329 8316	784 770	23 22		37 38	41 <u>9</u> 445	84 <u>6</u> 885	.7591 .7579	935 921	24 23 22 21
43 048 786 8253 701 17 43 571 078 .7520 849 11 44 073 824 .8240 687 16 44 596 116 .7508 849 12 45 .48099 .54862 1.8228 87673 1.5 45 49622 .57155 1.7496 .86820 14 46 124 900 8215 659 1.4 46 647 193 .7485 805 1.7 47 150 938 8202 645 13 47 672 232 .7473 791 11 49 201 .55013 .8177 617 11 49 723 309 .7449 762 1 50 .48226 .55051 1.8165 87603 10 50 .49748 57348 1.7426 733 574426 733 386 .7426 733 52	40 41	.47971 .47997	.54673 711	1 8291 .8278	87743 729	20 19		40 41	. 49495 521	.56962 .57000	1.7556 .7544	. 86892 878	20 19 18
45	43	048	786	.8253	701	17		43	571	078	.7520	849	17 16
48 175 54975 8190 631 12 48 697 271 .7461 777 1.776 50 .48226 .55051 1.8165 87603 10 50 .49748 57348 1.7437 86748 1 51 .252 .089 .8152 .589 9 .51 .773 .386 .7426 .733 .733 52 .277 .127 .8140 .575 .8 .52 .798 .425 .7414 .719 .8 53 .303 .165 .8127 .561 .7 .53 .824 .464 .7402 .704 .733 54 .328 .203 .8115 .546 .54 .849 .503 .7391 .86675 .8 55 .48354 .55241 1.8103 .87532 .5 .56 .49874 .57541 1.7379 .86675 .8 57 .405 .317 .8078 .504 .3 .57 .924 .619 .7335 .646 58 .430 .355 .8065 .490 .2 .58 .950 .657 .7344 .632 59 .4	46	. 48099	.54862 900	1.8228	87673 659	14		46	647	193	1.749 <u>6</u> .7485	. 86820 805	15 14 13
50 .48226 .55051 1.8163 87603 10 50 .49748 57348 1.7437 86748 11 51 .252 .089 .8152 .589 9 .51 .773 386 .7426 .733 .733 .733 .7414 .719 .733 .7414 .719	48	175	54975	.8190	631	12		48	697	271	.7461	777	12
53 303 165 8127 561 7 53 824 464 .7402 704 56 54 328 203 .8113 546 6 54 849 503 .7391 690 6 55 .48354 .55241 1.8103 .87532 5 55 .49874 .57541 1.7379 .86675 8 56 379 279 .8090 518 4 56 899 580 .7367 661 57 405 317 .8078 504 3 57 924 619 .7355 646 58 430 355 .8065 490 2 58 950 657 .7344 632 59 456 393 .8053 476 1 59 .49975 696 .7332 617 60 .48481 .55431 1 .8040 .87462 0 60 .50000 .57735 1 .7321 .86603 0	50	.48226	.55051	1.8163	87603	10		50	.49748	57348	1.7437	86748	10
54 328 203 .8115 546 6 54 849 503 .7391 690 6 55 .48354 .55241 1.8103 .87532 5 55 .49874 .57541 1.7379 .86675 8 56 379 279 .8000 518 4 56 899 580 .7367 661 8 57 405 317 .8078 504 3 57 924 619 .7355 646 58 430 355 .8065 490 2 58 950 657 .7344 632 59 59 456 393 .8053 476 1 59 .49975 696 .7332 617 60 .48481 .55431 1.8040 .87462 0 60 .50000 .57735 1.7321 .86603 0	53	277 303	127 165	.8140	575 561	8		52 53	798 824	425 464	.7414 .7402	719 704	9 8 7
56 379 279 8090 518 4 56 899 580 .7367 661 57 405 317 .8078 504 3 57 924 619 .7357 666 58 430 355 .8065 490 2 58 950 657 .7344 632 59 456 393 .8053 476 1 59 .49975 696 .7332 617 60 .48481 .55431 11.8040 .87462 0 60 .50000 .57735 1.7321 .86603 0				1				54					6 5
59 456 393 .8053 476 .1 59 .49975 696 .7332 617 60 .48481 .55431 1.8040 .87462 0 60 .50000 .57735 1.7321 .86603 (56 57	379 405	279	.8090 .8078	518 504	4		56 57	899 924	580 619	.7367 .7355	661 646	4
60 .48481 .55431 1.8040 .87462 0 60 .50000 .57735 1.7321 .86603 0	58 59	430						58	930 .49973			632	3 2 1
cos cot tan sin cos cot tan sin cos													ò
451° 241° 991° 61° 044 60° 150° 240° 990°					sin	·	۱. ا		cos				,

	120° 210° 300° 30°			TABLE	1	_	Con	tinued.	31	121	° 211° 3	010
	sin	tan	_cot	cos		Ì		sin	tan	cot	cos	1
0 1 2 3 4	.50000 025 050 076 101	.57735 774 813 851	1.7321 .7309 .7297 .7286	.86603 588 573 559	60 59 58 57		0 1 2 3	.51504 529 554 579	.60086 126 165 205	1.6643 .6632 .6621 .6610	.85717 702 687 672	60 59 58 57
5 6 7 8	.50126 151 176 201	.57929 .57968 .58007 046	.7274 1.7262 .7251 .7239 .7228	544 .86530 515 501 486	56 55 54 53 52		4 5 6 7 8	604 .51628 653 678	. 60284 324 364	.6599 1.6588 .6577 .6566	657 .85642 627 612	56 55 54 53 52
9 10 11	.50252 277	083 .58124 162	.7216 1.7205 .7193	471 . 86457 442	51 50 49		9 10 11	703 728 .51753 778	403 443 . 60483 522	. 655 <u>5</u> . 654 <u>5</u> 1 . 6534 . 6523	597 582 .85567 551	51 50 49
12 13 14 15	302 327 352 .50377	201 240 279 .58318	.7182 .7170 .7159	427 413 398	48 47 46		12 13 14	803 828 852	562 602 642	.6512 .6501 .6490	536 521 506	48 47 46
16 17 18 19	403 428 453 478	357 396 435 474	1.7147 .7136 7124 .7113 .7102	369 354 354 340 325	45 44 43 42 41		15 16 17 18	.51877 902 927 952 .51977	. 60681 721 761 801 841	1.6479 .6469 .6458 .6447 .6436	.85491 476 461 446 431	45 44 43 42 41
20 21 22 23 24	.50503 528 553 578	.58513 552 591 631	1.7090 .7079 .7067 .7056	. 86310 295 281 266	40 39 38 37		20 21 22 23	.52002 026 051 076	.60881 921 .60960 .61000	1.6426 .6415 .6404 .6393	.85416 401 385 370	40 39 38 37
25 26 27 28	603 .50628 654 679 704	670 .58709 748 787 826	.7045 1.7033 .7022 .7011	251 .86237 222 207 192	36 35 34 33 32		24 25 26 27 28	101 .52126 151 175 200	.61080 120 160 200	.6383 1.6372 .6361 .6351 .6340	355 .85340 325 310 294	36 35 34 33 32
29 30 31 32	729 .50754 779 804	.58905 .944 .58983	.6988 1.6977 .6965 .6954	178 .86163 148 133	31 30 29 28		29 30 31 32	225 .522 <u>50</u> 275 299	240 .61280 .320 360	.6329 1.6319 .6308 .6297	279 279 . 85264 249 234	31 30 29 28
33 34 35 36	3 829 59022 6943 4 854 061 6932 5 50879 59101 1.6920 86 6 904 140 6909		119 104 .86089 074	27 26 25 24		33 34 35 36	324 349 .52374 399	400 440 .61480 520	.6287 .6276 1.6265 .6255	218 203 .85188 173	27 26 25 24	
37 38 39 40	929 954 .50979 .51004	179 218 258 .59297	.6898 .6887 .6875	059 045 030 .86013	23 22 21 20		37 38 39 40	423 448 473 .52498	561 601 641 .61681	.6244 .6234 .6223	157 142 127 85112	23 22 21 20
41 42 43 44	029 054 079 104	336 376 415 454	.6853 .6842 .6831 .6820	.86000 .85985 970 .956	19 18 17 16		41 42 43 44	522 547 572 597	721 761 801 842	.6202 .6191 .6181 .6170	096 081 066 051	19 -18 17 16
45 46 47 48 49	.51129 154 179 204 229	.59494 533 573 612 651	1.6808 .6797 .6786 .6775 .6764	.85941 926 911 896 881	15 14 13 12 11		45 46 47 48 49	.52621 646 671 696 720	.61882 922 .61962 .62003 043	1.6160 .6149 .6139 .6128 .6118	.85035 020 .85005 .84989 974	15 14 13 12 11
50 51 52 53 54	.51254 279 304 329 354	.59691 730 770 809 849	1.6753 .6742 .6731 .6720 .6709	. 85866 851 836 821 806	10 9 8 7 6		50 51 52 53 54	.52745 770 794 819 844	. 62083 124 164 204 245	1,6107 .6097 .6087 .6076 .6066	.84959 943 928 913 897	10 9 8 7 6
56 56 57 58 59	.51379 404 429 454 479	.59888 928 .59967 .60007	1.6698' .6687 .667 <u>6</u> .6665	.85792 777 762 747 732	5 · 4 3 2 1		55 56 57 58 59	.52869 893 918 943 967	. 62285 325 366 406 446	1 6055 .6045 .6034 .6024 .6014	.84882 866 851 - 836 820	5 4 3 2
60					ö	١	60	.52992	.62487	1.6003	.84803	o
1	cos	cot	tan	sin			. 4	cos '	cot	tan	sin	
149	149° 239° 329° 59° 245 58° 148° 238° 328°											

122	2° 212°	302°	32	TABL	Æ 1.	_	-001	ıtınuea	33	123	° 213° 8	303°
,	sin	tan	cot	cos				sin	tan	cot	cos	
0 1 2	.52992 .53017 041	62487 -527 568	1.6003 .5993 .5983	.8480 5 789 774	60 59 58 57		1 2	.54464 488 513	.64941 .64982 .65024 065	1.5399 .5389 5379	.83867 851 835	60 59 58 57
3	066 091	608 649	.5972	759 743	56	ĺ	3 4	537 561	106	.5369	819 804	56
5 6 7	53115 140 164	730 770	1.5952 .5941 .5931	.84728 712 697	55 54 53		5 6 7	.54586 61 <u>0</u> 635	.65148 189 231	1.5350 .5340 .5330	.83788 772 756	55 54 53
8	189 214	811 852	.5921 .5911	681 666	52 51		8 9	659 683	272 314	.5320	740 724	52 51
10 11	.53238 263 288	.62892 933 .62973	1.5900 .5890 .5880	.84650° 635 619	50 49 48		10 11 12	. 54708 732 756	. 65355 397 438	1.5301 .5291 .5282	.83708 692 676	50 49 48
12 13 14	312 337	.63014 055	.5869	604 588	47 46		13 14	78 <u>1</u> 805	480 521	.5272	660 645	47 46
15 16	.53361 386	. 63095 136	1.5849 .5839	.84573 557	45 44		15 !6	. 54829 854	. 65563 604	1.5253 .5243 .5233	.83629 613	45 44
17 18 19	411 435 460	177 217 258	.5829 .5818 .5808	542 526 511	43 42 41		17 18 19	878 902 927	646 688 729	.5224	597 581 565	43 42 41
20	.53484 509	. 63299 340 380	1.5798 .5788 .5778	.84495 480 464	40 39 38		20 21 22	.54951 975 .54999	.65771 813 854	1.5204 .5195 .5185	.83549 533 517	40 39 38
22 23 24	534 558 583	421 462	.5768 .5757	448 433	37 36		23 24	.55024 048	896 · 938	.5175	50 <u>1</u> 485	38 37 36
25 26 27	.53607 632 656	. 63503 544 584	1:5747 .5737 .5727	.84417 402 386	35 34 33		25 26 27	.55072 097 121	.65980 .66021 063	1.5156 .5147 .5137	.83469 453 437	35 34 33
28 29	681 705	625 666	.5717 .5707	37 <u>0</u> 355	32 31		28 29	145 169	105 147	.5127	421 405	32 31
30 31	.53730 754	. 63707 748	1.5697 .5687	.84339 324	30 29		30 31	.55194 218	.66189 230	1.5108	.83389 373	30 29
32 33 34	779 804 828	789 830 871	.5677 .5667 .5657	308 292 277	28 27 26		32 33 34	242 266 291	272 314 356	.5089 .5080 .5070	356 340 324	28 27 26
35 36	.53853 877	.63912 953	1.5647 .5637	84261 245 230	25 24		35 36 37	.5531 5 339	66398 440	1.5061 .5051	.83308 292 276	25 24
37 38 39	902 926 951	.63994 .64035 076	.5627 .5617 .5607	230 214 198	23 22 21		37 38 39	363 388 412	482 524 566	.5042 .5032 .5023	276 260 244	23 22 21
40 41	.53975 .54000	.64117 158	1.5597 .5587	84182 167	20 19		40 41	.55436 460	66608 650	1.5013	83228 212	20 19
42 43 44	024 049 073	199 240 281	.5577 .5567 .5557	151 135 120	· 18 17 16		42 43 44	484 509 533	692 734 776	.499 <u>4</u> .4985 .4975	195 179 163	18 17 16
45 46	.54097 122	.64322 363	1.5547 .5537	.84104 088	15 14		45 46	. 55557 581	.66818 860	1.4966	.83147 131	15 14
47 48 49	146 171 195	404 446 487	.5527 .5517 .5507	072 057 041	13 12 11		47 • 48 49	605 630 654	902 944 66986	.4947 .4938 .4928	115 098 082	13 12 11
50 51	.54220 244	.64528 569	1.5497 .5487	.84025 .84009	10 9		50 51	.55678 702	.67028 071	1.4919	830 <u>6</u> 6 -050	10 9
52 53 54	269 293 317	610 652 693	.5477 .5468 .5458	.83994 978 962	8 7 6		52 53 54	726 750 775	11 <u>3</u> 155 197	.4900 .4891 .4882	034 017 .83001	8 7
55 56	.54342 366	.64734 775	1.5448	.83946 930	5 4		55 56	.55799 823	.67239 282	.4882 1.4872 .4863	.82985 969	6 5 4
57 58	391 415	817 858	.5428 .5418	915 899	3 2		57 58	847 871	324 366	.4854 .4844	953 936	3 2
59 60	440 .54464	. 64941	.5408 1.5399	. 83867 . 83867	0		59 60	. 55919	. 67451	.4835 1.4826	920 .82904	0
	cos	cot	tan	sin	<u>'</u>	Į	<u> </u>	cos	cot .	tan	sin	'

124	° 214°	304° 3	4°	TABLE	I	_	Con	tinued.	3	5° 125	° 215° 3	05°
	sin	tan	cot	cos			,	sin	ţan -	cot	cos.	
0	.55919	.67451	1.4826	.82904	60		.0	.57358	.70021	1.4281	.81915	60
1 1	943 968	493 536	.4816 .4807	887 871	59 58		1	381 405	064 107	.4273	899	59
3	.55992	578	1.4798	855	57		2	429	151	.4255	882 865	57
4	.56016	620	.4788	839	56		. 4	453	194	.4246	848	58 57 56
5	.56040	. 67663	1.4779	.82822	55	l	5	.57477	. 70238	1.4237	.81832	55
6	064 088	705 T	.4770 .4761	806 790	54	H	6	501 524	28 <u>1</u> 325	.4229	815	54
8	112	790	.4751	773	52		8	548	368	.4220 .4211	798 782	53 52
9	136	832	.4742	757	51		ğ	572	- 412	.4202	765	51
10	.56160	. 67875	1.4733	.82741	50		10	.57596	. 70455	1.4193	.81748	50
11	184 208	917	.4724	724	49 48		11	619	499	.4185	731	49
13	232	.68002	.4715	708 692	47		12	643 667	542 586	.4176 .4167	714 698	48 47
14	256	045	.4696	675.	46		14	691	629	.4158	681	46
15	.56280	.68088	1.4687	.82659	45		15	.57713	. 70673	1.4130	.81664	45
16 17	305 329	130 173	.4678 .4669	643	44 43		16 17	738 762	717 760	.4141	647	44 43
18	353	215	.4659	610	42		18	786	804	.4132 .4124	631 614	42
19	377	258	.4650	593	41		iŏ.	810	848	4115	597	41
20	.56401	.68301	1.4641	.82577	40		20	.57833	.70891	1.4106	.81580	40
21 22	425 449	343 386	. 4632	561 544	39 38		21 22	857 881	935 .70979	.4097 .4089	563	39
23	473	429	.4614	528	37		23	904	.71023	.4080	546 530	38 37
24	497	471	.4603	511	36		24	928	066	.4071	513	36
25	.56521	.68514	1.4596	.82493	35		25	.57952	.71110	1.4063	.81496	35
26 27	543 569	557 600	.4586 .4577	478 462	34 33		26 27	976 .57999	154 198	.4054	479 462	34 33 32
28 29	593	642	.4568	446	32		28	.58023	242	.4037	445	32
	617	685	,4559	429	31		29	047	285	.4028.	428	31
30	.56641	. 68728	1.4550	.82413	30		30	.58070	.71329	1.4019	.81412	30
31 32 33	665 689	771 814	.4541 .4532	396 380	29 28		31 32	094 118	373 417	.4011	395 378	29 28 27
33	713	857	.4523	363	27		33	141	461	.3994	361	27
34	736	900	.4514	347	26		34	165	505	.3985	344	26
35	.56760 784	.68942	1.4505	.82330	25		35	.58189	71549	1.3976	.81327	25
36 37.	808	.69028	.4496	314 297	24 23		36 37	212 236	593 637	.3968	310 293	24
38	832	071	.4478	281	22		38	260	681	.3951	276	24 23 22
39	856	114	.4469	264	21		39,	283	725	.3942	259	21
40 41	.56880 904	.69157	1.4460	.82248 231	20 19		40	.58307	.71769 813	1.3934	.81242	20 19
42	928	243	.4451	214	18	ĺ	41 42	330 354	857	.3916	225 208	18
43	952	286	.4433	198	17		43	378	901	3908	191	17
44	.56976	329	.4424	181	16	1	44	401	246	.3899	174	16
45 46	.57000 024	.69372 416	1.4413	8216 5 148	15 14		45 46	.58425 449	.71990 .72034	1.3891	.81157 140	15 14
47	047	459	.4397	132	13	١	47	472	078	.3874	123	13
48	071	502	.4388	113	12	l	48	496	122	3865	106	12
49	095	545	.4379	098	11		49	519	167	.3857	089	11
50 51	.57119 143	.69588 .631	1.4370	. 82082 065	10		50 51	.58543 567	. 72211	1.3848	.81072 055	10
52	167	675	. 4352	048	8 7		52	590	299	3831	038	8 7
53	191	718	.4344	032			53	614	344	.3823	021	
54	213	761 .69804	.4335	.82015	6	1	54 55	58661	388 .72432	3814	.81004 80987	6 5
55 56	57238 262	847	1.4326	982	5 4	1	56	684	477	.3798	970	4
57	286	891	.4308	965	l 3	1	57	708	521	.3789	953	3
58 59	310 334	934	.4299	949	2	1	58	73 <u>1</u> 755	565	.3781	936 919	3 2 1
60	. 57358	.70021	1.4281	.81915	6		60	.58779	.72654	1.3764	.80902	6
1-0	cos	-	tan	sin	 ,	1	1-5	cos	cot	tan	sin	 ,
1	Cos	cot	tan	SILL	<u> </u>	1	<u></u>	l cos	COL	ш	1 9111	<u> </u>

126	30 2160	306° 3		LABLE	1 1	٠,		unuea.				070
1	sin	tan ·	cot	cos		ı		sin	tan	cot	cos	
0	.58779	.72654	1.3764	.80902	60	ı	0	.60182	.75355	1.3270	.79864	60
ľ	802	699	.3755	883	59 58	1	1	205	401	.3262	846	59
2	826	743	.3747	867	58	1	3	228	447 492	.3254	829	58
3	849	788 832	.3739 .3730	850 833	57 56		4	251 274	538	.3246	811 793	57 56
- 1	873							60298	.75584	1.3230	.79776	55
5	.58896	.72877 921	1.3722	.80816 799	55 54	1	5 6	321	629	.3222	758	54
7	920 943	.72966	.3705	782	53	ı	7	344	675	3214	741	53
8	967	.73010	.3697	78 <u>2</u> 765	52		8	367	721	3206	723	52
ŏ	58990	055	.3688	748	51		ğ	390	767	.3198	706	51
10	.59014	.73100	1.3680	.80730	50		10	.60414	.75812	1.3190	.79688	50
īĭ	037	144	.3672	713	49		11	437	858	.3182	671	49
12	061	189	.3663	696	48		12	460	904	.3175	653	48
13	084	234	.3653	679	47		. 13	483	950	.3167	635	47
14	108	278	.3647	662	46		14	506	.75996	.3159	618	46
15	.59131	. 73323	1.3638	.80644	45		15.	. 60529	.76042	1.3151	.79600	45
. 16	154	368	.3630	627	44		16	553	088	.3143	58 <u>3</u>	44
17	178	413	.3622	610 593	43 42		17	576 599	134 180	.3135	56 3 547	43 42
18 19	20 <u>1</u> 225	457 502	.3613 .3605	576	41		18 19	622	226	.3119	530	41
20	.59248	.73547	1.3597	.80558	40		20	.60645	.76272	1.3111	.79512	40
21	272	592	.3588	541	39		21	668	318	.3103	494	39
22	295	637	.3580	524	38		22	691	364	.3095	477	38
23	318	681	.3572	507	37		22 23	714	410	.3087	459	37
24	342	726	.3564	489	36		24	738	456	.3079	441	36
25	.59365	.73771	1.3555	.80472	35		25	.60761	.76502	1.3072	.79424	35
26	389	816	.3547	453	34		26 27	784	548	,3064	406	34
27	412	861	.3539	438	33		27	807	594	.3056	388	33 32
28 29	436 459	906	.3531	420 403	32 31		28 29	830 853	640 686	.3048	371 353	31
		951							.76733	1.3032		
30	.59482 506	73996	1.3514	.80386 368	30 29		30 31	. 60876 899	779	.3024	.79335 318	30. 29
32	520	086	.3498	351	28		32	922	825	3017	300	28
33	552	131	.3490	334	27		33	945	871	.3009	282	28 27
34	576	176	.3481	316	26		34	968	918	.3001	264	26
35	.59599	.74221	1.3473	.80299	25	ľ	35	.60991	.76964	1.2993	.79247	25
36	622	267	.3465	-282	24		36	.61015	.77010	.2985	229	24
37	646	312	.3457	264	23		37	038	057	.2977	211	23 22
38	669	357	.3449	247	22		38	061	.103	.2970	193	22
39	693	402	.3440	230	21		39	084	149	.2962	176	21
40	.59716 739	.74447	1.3432	.8021 <u>2</u> 195	20 19		40	.61107	.77196 242	1.2954	.79158	20
41 42	763	492 538	3424 .3416	178	18		41 42	130 153	289	.2946	140	19 18
43	786	583	3408	160	17		43	176	335	.2931	122 105	17
44	809	628	.3400	143	16		44	199	382	.2923	087	16
45	. 59832	.74674	1.3392	.80125	15		45	.61222	.77428	1.2915	.79069	15
46	856	719	.3384	108	14		46	245	475	.2907	051	14
47	879	764	.3375	091	13		47	268	521	.2900	033	13
48	902	810	.3367	073	12		48	291	568	.2892	.79016	12
49	926 . 59949	855	.3359	056	11		49	314	615	.2884	.78998	11
50	972	.74900 946	1.3351	.80038 021	10		50 51	. 61337 360	.77661 `708	1.2876	.78980 962	10
51	.59995	.74991	.3335	.80003	. 8		52	383	754	.2861	962	8
52 53	.60019	.75037	.3327	.79986	7		53	406	754 801	.2853	926	7
54	042	082	.3319	968	6		54	429	848	.2846	908	6
55	. 60065	.75128	1.3311	.79951	5		55	.61451	.77895	1.2838	.78891	5
56 l	089	173	.3303	934	4		56	474	941	.2830	873	4
57	112	219	.3293	916	3		57	497	.77988	.2822	855	3 2
58	135	264	.3287	899	2		58	520	.78035	.2815	837	2
59	- 158	310	.3278	881	1		59	543	082	.2807	819	1
60	.60182	.75355	1.3270	.79864	0		60	.61566	.78129	1.2799	.78801	0
Ī	cos	cot	tan	sin	. ,			cos	cot	tan	sin	·
	0 7230		20			59	0° 149	2320 0				

128		LABLE	1	(JUTE	nnuea.	38	129	219° 30	09°		
	sin	tan	cot	cos		ļ	′]	sin	tan	cot	cos	
0 1 2	. 61566 589 61 <u>2</u>	.78129 175 222	1.2799 .2792 .2784	.78801 783 765	60 59 58		0 1 2	. 62932 955 . 62977	.80978 .81027 075	1.2349 .2342 .2334	. 77715 696 678	60 59 58 57
3 4 . 5	635 658 .61681	269 316 .78363	.2776 .2769 1.2761	747 729 .78711	57 56 55		3 4 5	. 63000 022 . 63045	123 171	. 2327 . 2320	660 641	56
6 7 8	704 726 749	410 457 504	.2753 .2746 .2738	694 676 658	54 53 52		6 7 8	068 090 113	.81220 268 316 364	1.231 <u>2</u> .2305 .2298 .2290	. 7762 <u>3</u> 605 586 568	55 54 53 52
9 10	.61795	551 .78598	.2731 1.2723	.78622	51 50		9 10	135 . 63158	413 .81461	.2283 1.2276	550 .77531	51 50
11 12 13 14	818 841 864 887	645 692 739 786	.2715 .2708 .2700 .2693	604 586 5 <u>6</u> 8 5 <u>5</u> 0	49 48 47 46		11 12 13 14	180 203 225 248	510 558 60 <u>6</u> 655	.2268 .2261 .2254 .2247	513 494 476 458	49 48 47 46
15 16 17	.61909 932 955	.78834 881 928	1.2685 .2677 .2670	.78532 514 496	45 44 43		15 16 17	. 63271 293 316	.81703 752 800	1.2239 .2232 .2225	.77439 421 402	45 44 43
18 19 20	.61978 :62001 .62024	.78975 .79022 .79070	.266 <u>2</u> .2655 1.2647	478 460 .78442	42 41 40		18 19 20	338 361 .63383	849 898 .81946	.2218 .2210 1.2203	384 366 .77347	42 41 40
21 22 23 24	046 069 092 115	117 164 212 259	.2640 .2632 .2624 .2617	424 405 387 369	39 38 37 36		21 22 23 24	406 428 451 473	.81995 .82044 092 141	.2196 .2189 .2181 .2174	329 310 292 273	39 38 37 36
25 26 27 28	.62138 160 183 206	.79306 354 401 449	1.2609 .2602 .2594 .2587	.78351 333 315 297	35 34 33 32		25 26 27 28	.63496 518 540 563	.82190 238 287 336	1.2167 .2160 .2153 .2145	.77255 236 218 199	35 34 33 32
29 30	. 62251	496 .79544	.2579 1.2572	279 . 78261	31 30		29 30	585 . 63608	385 . 82434	.2138	181 .77162	31 30
31 32 33 34	274 297 320 342	591 639 686 734	.2564 .2557 .2549 .2542	.24 <u>3</u> 225 206 188	29 28 27 26		31 32 33 34	630 653 675 698	483 531 580 629	.2124 .2117 .2109 .2102	144 125 107 088	29 28 27 26
35 36 37 38	.62365 388 411 433	. 79781 829 877 924	1.2534 .2527 .2519 .2512	.78170 152 134	25 24 23 22		35 36 37 38	.63720 742 -765 787	.82678 727 776 825	1.2095 .2088 .2081 .2074	.77070 051 033 .77014	25 24 23 22
39 40	456 .62479	.79972	1.2497	098 .78079	21 20		39 40	810 .63832	874 .82923 .82972	.2066 1.2059 .2052	.76996 .76977 959	21 20 19
41 42 43 44	502 524 547. 570	067 115 163 211	.2489 .248 <u>2</u> .2475 .2467	061 043 025 .78007	19 18 17 16		41 42 43 44	854 877 899 922	.82972 .83022 071 120	.2032 .2045 .2038 .2031	940 940 921 903	18 17 16
45 46 47 48	.62592 615 638 660	.80258 306 354 402	1.2460 .2452 .2445 .2437	.77988 970 952 934	15 14 13 12		45 46 47 48	.63944 966 .63989 .64011	.83169 218 268 317	1.2024 .2017 .2009 .2002	.76884 866 847 828	15 14 13 12
49 50	683	450 .80498	1.2423	916 .77897	11		49 50	033	366 .83415	.1995 1.1988	810 .76791	11 10
51 52 53	728 751 774	546 594 642	.2415 .2408 .2401	879 861 843	9 8 7		51 52 53	078 100 123 145	465 514 564 613	.1981 .1974 .1967	772 754 735 717	9 8 7 6
54 55 56 57	796 .62819 842	.80738 786	.2393 1.2386 .2378	.77806 788	6 5 4		54 55 56	.64167 190	.83662 712	1.1953	.76698 679	5 4
57 58 59	864 887 909	834 882 930	.2371 .2364 .2356	769 751 733	3 2 1		57 58 59	212 234 256	761 811 860	.1939 .193 <u>2</u> .1925	661 642 623	3 2 1
60	.62932	80978	1.2349	.77713	Ó		60	. 64279	.83910	1.1918	.76604	0
	. cos	cot	tan	sin	1'	24		сов	cot	tan	sin	1 '

130	° 220°	310° ∙4	FO.	LABLE	1 1		Com	inued.	4	1 131	2210 8	11.
•	sin	tan	cot	cos				sin	- tan	cot	cos	
0 1 2 3 4	. 64279 301 323 346	.83910 .83960 .84009 059	1.1918 .1910 .1903 .1896	.76604 586 567 548	60 59 58 57 56		0 1 2 3 4	. 65606 628 650 672 694	.86929 .86980 .87031 082 133	1.1504 .1497 .1490 .1483 .1477	.75471 452 433 414 395	59 58 57 56
5 6 7 8	368 . 64390 412 435 457	.84158 208 258 307	1.1889 1.1882 1875 1868 .1861	530 .76511 492 473 455	55 54 53 52		5 6 7 8	. 65716 738 759 781	.87184 236 287 338	1.1470 .1463 .1456 .1450	.75375 356 337 318	55 54. 53 52 51
9 10 11 12 13	479 . 64501 524 546 568	357 .84407 457 507 556	. 1854 1. 1847 . 1840 . 1833 . 1826	436 .76417 398 380 361	51 50 49 48 47		9 10 11 12 13	803 . 65825 847 869 891	389 . 87441 492 543 595	.1443 1.1436 .1430 .1423 .1416	.75280 .261 .241 .222	51 50 49 48 47
15 16 17 18	590 . 64612 635 657 679	606 .84656 706 756 806	.1819 1.1812 .1806 .1799 .1792	342 .76323 304 286 267	46 45 44 43 42		14 15 16 17 18	913 .65935 956 .65978	646 . 87698 749 801 852	.1410 1.1403 .1396 .1389 .1383	203 .75184 165 146 126	46 45 44 43 42
19 20 21 22 23	701 . 64723 746 768 790	856 .84906 .84956 .85006 057	1.1785 1.1778 1771 1764	248 .76229 210 192 173	41 40 39 38 37		19 20 21 22 23	022 .66044 066 088 109	904 .87955 .88007 059	. 1376 1. 1369 . 1363 . 1356 . 1349	.75088 069 050 030	41 40 39 38 37
24 25 26 27 28	812 .64834 856 878 901	107 .85157 207 257 308	.1750 1.1743 .1736 .1729 .1722	154 .76135 116 097 078	36 35 34 33 32		24 25 26 27 28	131 .66153 175 197 218	162 .88214 265 317 369	. 1343 1. 1336 . 1329 . 1323 . 1316	.75011 .74992 973 953 934	36 35 34 33 32
30 31 32 33 34	923 .64945 967 .64989 .65011	358 . 85408 458 509 559	.1715 1.1708 .1702 .1695 .1688	059 .76041 022 .76003 .75984	31 30 29 28 27		30 31 32 33	240 .66262 284 306 327	421 .88473 524 576 628	.1310 1.1303 .1296 .1290 .1283	915 .74896 876 857 838	30 29 28 27
35 36 37 38	033 .65055 077 100 122	609 . 85660 710 761 811	.1681 1:1674 .1667 .1660 .1653	. 965 .75946 927 908 889	26 25 24 23 22		35 36 37 38	349 .66371 393 414 436	. 88732 784 836 888	. 1276 1.1270 . 1263 . 1257 . 1250	818 .74799 780 760 741	26 25 24 23 22
39 40 41 42 43	144 65166 188 210 232	.85912 .85963 .86014 064	.1647 1.1640 .1633 .1626 .1619	870 .75851 832 813 794	21 20 19 18 17		39 40 41 42 43	458 . 66480 501 523 545	940 .88992 .89045 097 149	.1243 1.1237 .1230 .1224 .1217	.722 .74703 683 664 644	21 20 19 18 17
44 45 46 47 48	254 .65276 298 320 342	115 .86166 216 267 318	.1612 1.1606 .1599 .1592 .1585	775 .75756 738 719 700	16 15 14 13 12		44 45 46 47 48	566 . 66588 610 632 653	201 .89253 306 358 410	.1211 1.1204 .1197 .1191 .1184	625 .74606 586 567 548	16 15 14 13 12
50 51 52 53	364 .65386 408 430 452	368 .86419 470 521 572	.1578 1.1571 .1565 .1558 .1551	680 .75661 642 623 604	11 10 9 8 7		50 51 52 53	675 . 66697 718 740 762	463 .89515 567 620	.1178 1.1171 .1165 .1158 .1152	528 .74509 489 470 451	10 9 8 7 6
54 55 56 57 58	474 . 65496 . 518 . 540 . 562	623 .8667 <u>4</u> 725 776 827	.1544 1.1538 .1531 .1524 .1517	585 .75566 547 528 509	6 5 4 3 2		54 55 56 57 58	783 . 66805 827 848 870	67 <u>2</u> 72 <u>5</u> .89777 830 883	1145 1.1139 .1132 .1126	431 .74412 392 373 353	6 5 4 3 2
59	584 65606	878	.1510	490 .75471	1 0		59 60	891 .66913	935 .89988 .90040	.1119 .1113 1.1106	334 .74314	1 0
丁	cos	cot	tan	sin	-	1	ᅥ	cos	cot	tan	sin	,
			400			ı			لسسا			

									4	0 -100		134
<u></u>	sin	tan	cot	cos				sin	tan	cot	cos	
0	.66913	.90040	1.1106	.74314	60	ı	0	.68200	.93252	1.0724	.73135	60
1 2	93 5 956	093 146	.1100	295 276	59	ı	1 !	221 242	306	.0717	116	59:
2 3	978	199	1087	256	58 57	ļ	3	264	36 <u>0</u> 415	.0711	096 076	58 57
4	.66999	251	.1080	237	56	ľ	4	285	469	.0699	056	56
. 5	.67021	.90304	1.1074	.74217	55	1	5	.68306	.93524	1.0692	.73036	55
67	043 064	357 410	.1067	198	54 53 52		6	327	578	.0686	.73016	54
8	086	463	.1061	178 159	1 23	l	8	349 370	633 688	.0680	.72996 976	53 52
ğ	107	516	.1048	139	51		9	391	742	.0668	957	51
10	.67129	.90569	1.1041	.74120	50	1	10	.68412	.93797	1.0661	.72937	50
!!	151	621	.1035	100	49	1	111	434	852	.0655	917	49
12	172 194	674 727	.1028	080 061	48 47	ì	12	453 476	906 .93961	.0649	897	48
14	213	781	1016	041	46	l	14	497	.94016	.0643	877 857	47 46
15	. 67237	.90834	1.1009	.74022	45	ĺ	15	.68518	.94071	1.0630	.72837	45
16	258	887	.1003	.74002	44		16	539	125	.0624	817	44
17	280	940	.0996	.73983	43		17	561	180	.0618	797	43
18 19	301 323	.90993	.0990	.963 .944	42 41	ı	18	582 603	235 290	.0612	777 757	42 41
20	.67344	.91099	1.0977	.73924	40	ı	20	.68624	.94345	1.0599	.72737	40
21	366	153	.0971	904	39	ı	21	645	400	.0593	- 717	39
22	387	206	.0964	885	38	ı	22 23	666	455	.0587	697	38 37
23	409 430	259 313	.0958	865 846	37 36		23	688 709	510 565	.0581	677 657	37
25	.67452	.91366	1.0945	.73826	35	ı	25	.68730	.94620	.0573	.72637	35
26	473	- 419	.0939	806	34	١.	26	751	676	.0562	617	34
• 27	493	473	.0932	787	33 32		26 27 28	772	731	.0556	597	33 32
28 29	516 538	526 580	.0926	767 747	32 31		28 29	793 814	786 841	.0550	. 577 557	32
30	.67559	.91633	1.0913	.73728	30	ŀ	30	.68835	.94896	.0544	.72537	30
31	580	687	0907	708	29		31	857	.94952	.0532	517	29
32	602	740	.0900	688	28		32	878	.95007	.0526.	497	28
33 34	62 <u>3</u> 645	794 847	.0894	669 649	27	١.	33.	.899 920	062	0519	477	27 26
35	.67666	.91901	1.0881	.73629	26 25		35	.68941	.95173	1.0507	457 72437	25
36	688	91955	.0875	610	24		36	962	229	.0501	417	24
37	709	.92008	.0869	590	23		37	. 68983	284	1149 ₹	397	23
38	730 752	062	.0862	570	22	ļ.	38 39	.69004	340	.0489	377 357	22 21
. 39	.67773	116	.0856	551	21			025	395	.0483	.72337	20
40 41	795	.92170 224	1.0850	.73531 511	20 19	ĺ	40	. 69046 067	.95451 506	1.0477	317	19
42	816	277	.0837	491	18		42	088	562	.0464	297	18
43	837	331	.0831	472	17		43	109	618	.0458	277	17
44	. 67880	· 385	.0824	452	16		44	130	.95729	.0452	.72236	16 15
46	901	493	1.0818	.73432 413	15 14	ŀ	45 46	.69151 172	.95729 785	1.0446 .0440	216	14
47	923	547	.0805	393	13		47	193	841	.0434	196	13
48	944	601	.0799	373	12		48	214	897	-0428	176	12
49	965	655	.0793	353	11		49	235	.95952	.0422	.72136	11 10
50 51	.67987 .68008	.92709 763	1.0786 .0780	.73333 314	10.		50 51	.69256 277	.96008	1.0416	116	10
52	- 029	817	.0774	294	8		52 53	298	120	.0404	095	8 7
53	051	872	.0768	274	. 7		53	319	176	.0398	075	
54.	072	926	.0761	254.	6		54	340	232	.0392	055	6
55 56	.6809 <u>3</u>	.92980	1.0755 .0749	.73234	5		55 56	.69361 382	.96288 344	1.0385 .0379	.7203 <u>5</u> .72015	5 4
57 l	136	088	.0742	21 <u>5</u> 195			57	403	400	.0373	.71995	3 1
58	157	143	.0736	175	3		58	424	457	0367	974	2
59	179	197	.0730	155	1		59	445	513	.0361	954	1.
60	.68200	.93252	1.0724	.73135	0		60	.69466	.96569	1.0355	.71934	. 0
	cos	cot	tan	sin ·				cos	cot	tan .	sin ,	/
												–

TABLE I.—Continued.

44° 184° 224° 314°

	sin	tatn	cot	cos	
l					1 60
1234	48	7 625	1.0355 .0349 .0343 .0337	914	59 58 57 56
3	50	8 681	.0343	894	58
4	50 52 54	794	.0331	894 873 853	56
5	6957	N I 96850	111 0275	.71833	
8 9	59 61 63	1 907 2 96963	.0319 .0313 .0307	.71833 813 792	54
l á	63	3 .97020	30307	1 114	1 52
	1 65	4 I 1076	.0301	752	54 53 52 51
10	. 6967 6967 71 73	5 .97133 5 189	1.0295 .0289 .0283	71732	49
11 12 13	71	7 246 7 302	0283	691	48
13	73	7 302 3 359	.0277	691 671 650	47
15	. 69779	07416	1.0265	1 71630	45
16	800	472	.0259	610	44
1 18	82	529 586	.0253	590	43
15 16 17 18 19	862	643	1.0265 .0259 .0253 .0247 .0241	610 590 569 549	43 42 41
20 21 22 23 24	. 69883	1.97700	1.0235 .0230 .0224 .0218 .0212	.71529 508 488	40
22	904	813	0224	488	39
23	946	1 870	.0218	468	40 39 38 37 36
24	966	927	1 0206	71427	36
26	1.70008	08041	1.0206 .0200 .0194 .0188	407	34
27	029 049	098	.0194	1 386	33
25 26 27 28 29	070	098 155 213	.0182	366 345	35 34 33 32 31
30 31 32 33 34	.70091	.98270 327	1.0176	.71325 305 284 264	30
31	112	-1 384	.0170 .0164 .0158 .0152	305	30 29 28 27
33	1 153	441	.0158	264	27
34	70195	499	.0152	243	26
35 36 37 38	215	.98556	1.0147	.71223	25 24
37	236 257	671 728	.0141 .0135 .0129 .0123	203 182 162	24 23 22 21
32	277	786	.0129	162	22
40	1.70298	.98843	1.0117	.71121	20
41 42	319 339	901	.0111	100	20 19 18 17 16
43	360	.98958	.0099	080 059	17
44 45	381	073	.0094	039	16
46	.70401 422 443	189	1.0088	.71019 .70998	15 14 13 12
46 47 48	443	247 304	.0076	978 957	i3
49	463 484	362	.0070	957	13 12 11
50	.70503	.99420	1.0058	.70916	10
51	525	478 536	.0052	896	9 1
51 52 53 54	546 567	594	.0047	896 875 855	8 7
. 54	587		.0035	834	6
55 56	.70608 628	-99710 768	1.0029	.70813 793	5
56 57 58	649	826 884	.0023	772	3
58 59	670 690	.99942	.0012	752	876 54321
60	.70711	1.0000	1.0006	731	6
- i	cos	cot	tan	sin (<u> </u>
		4 5			

EXPLANATION OF TABLE III

STADIA TABLES FOR OBTAINING DIFFERENCES OF ELEVATION

United States Geological Survey tables by C. G. Anderson.

"These tables are designed to serve the double purpose of obtaining accurate differences of elevation in traversing, by use of vertical angles and observed stadia distances, and of obtaining less accurate differences of elevation for topographic sketching away from the traverse line, where distances are determined by intersection upon the plane-table and measured in feet with the platting scale.

"Explanation.—The degrees of the vertical angles are printed in heavy type at the top of each page; the minutes in the right and left vertical columns. The figures in the top horizontal line represent the observed stadia distances in feet, read upon a rod held vertically. The numbers in the bottom horizontal line represent the correct horizontal distances, based on the middle (30') angle of the page and corresponding to the observed stadia distance at the top of the same vertical column. The horizontal distances are also for use in platting. The numbers in the body of the table are differences of elevation in feet. Tabular values for the omitted columns, viz, 1000, 2000 and 3000, can be obtained from columns 100, 200, and 300, respectively, by moving the decimal point one place to the right; and for distances less than any of the even hundreds by moving it to the left.

"In stadia traversing for any vertical angle the argument for the difference of elevation is the *observed* stadia distance.

"Example: Required the difference of elevation for an angle of 3° 16' for an observed stadia distance of 3645 ft. (See the 3° page of table.)

	Ft.
Difference of elevation for 3000 ft. (point moved to right)	170.7
Difference of elevation for 600 ft	34.1
Difference of elevation for 40 ft. (point moved to left)	2.28
Difference of elevation for 5 feet (point moved two places to left)	.28
Adding gives correct difference of elevation required	207.3

"For topographic sketching of intersected points, the argument for the difference of elevation for any vertical angle is the correct horizontal distance

at the bottom of the page. If more refined results are required for intersected points, an interpolation of the horizontal distances may be made and a correction for curvature and refraction applied.

"Theory.—The formula Diff, Elev. =
$$\frac{\text{Observed distance} \times \text{sine 2 vert. angle}}{2}$$

has been employed in the computation of these tables. Where more than ordinary accuracy is required in stadia measurements, a correction equal to the "stadia constant" (or f+c) times the sine of the vertical angle should be added to the values of the difference of elevation given in these tables. This correction may be obtained by double interpolation from the small table below, in which the arguments used are the stadia constant and the vertical angle.

Stadia constant (or f + c)	5°	10°	15°	20°	25°	30°
1.00 (ft)	0.11	Ft. 0.17 0.22 0.26	Ft. 0.26 0.37 0.41	Ft. 0.34 0.43 0.51	Ft. 0.42 0.53 0.62	Ft. 0.50 0.62 0.75

"Example: Required correction to tabular difference of elevation when 'stadia constant' = 1.15 ft. and vertical angle = 21° 00'. By double interpolation the tabular value for this angle = 0.42 ft. Add this correction to the difference of elevation already found from the stadia tables.

"Note.—f = focal length of instrument, which is the distance from the objective lens to point in front where rays from distant object cross before entering the telescope. The focal length is equal to the distance from the objective lens to the cross hairs when the telescope is focused upon a distant object, and for any instrument should be actually measured. c = distance from objective lens to center of transverse axes when telescope is focused upon distant object."

TABLE III

							· .	0°								
	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1100	1200	1300	1400	1500	1600	1700
1 2 3 4 5	0.03 0.06 0.09 0.12 0.15	0.06 0.12 0.18 0.23 0.29	0.09 0.17 0.26 0.35 0.44	0.1 0.2 0.3 0.4 0.6	0.2 0.3 0.4 0.6 0.7	0.3	0.4 0.6 0.8	0.7	0.3 0.5 0.8 1.0 1.3	0.3 0.6 1.0 1.3 1.6	0.3 0.7 1.0 1.4 1.7	0.4 0.8 1.1 1.5 1.9	0.4 0.8 1.2 1.6 2.0	0.4 0.9 1.3 1.7 2.2	0.5 0.9 1.4 1.9 2.3	0.5 1.0 1.5 2.0 2.5
6 7 8 9 10	0.18 0.20 0.23 0.26 0.29	0.35 0.41 0.46 0.52 0.58	0.52 0.61 0.70 0.79 0.87	0.7 0.8 0.9 1.0 1.2	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.6 1.8 2.1 2.4 2.6	1.9 2.2 2.6 2.9 3.2	2.1 2.4 2.8 3.1 3.5	2.3 2.6 3.0 3.4 3.8	2.4 2.8 3.3 3.7 4.1	2.6 3.0 3.5 3.9 4.4	2.8 3.3 3.7 4.2 4.7	3.0 3.5 4.0 4.4 4.9
11	0.32	0.64	0.96	1.3	1 2.0	1.9	2.2	2.6	2.9	3.5	3.8	4.2	4.5	4.8	5.1	5.4
12	0.35	0.70	1.05	1.4		2.1	2.4	2.8	3.1	3.8	4.2	4.5	4.9	5.2	5.6	5.9
13	0.38	0.77	1.13	1.5		2.3	2.6	3.0	3.4	4.2	4.5	4.9	5.3	5.7	6.0	6.4
14	0.41	0.81	1.22	1.6		2.4	2.8	3.3	3.7	4.5	4.9	5.3	5.7	6.1	6.5	6.9
15	0.44	0.87	1.31	1.7		2.6	3.1	3.5	3.9	4.8	5.2	5.7	6.1	6.5	7.0	7.4
16 17 18 19 20	0.47 0.49 0.52 0.55 0.58	0.93 0.99 1.05 1.10 1.16	1.40 1.48 1.57 1.66 1.75	1.9 2.0 2.1 2.2 2.3	2.3 2.5 2.6 2.8 2.9	2.8 3.0 3.1 3.3 3.5	3.7 3.9	3.7 4.0 4.2 4.4 4.7	4.2 4.4 4.7 4.9 5.2	5.1 5.4 5.8 6.1 6.4	5.6 5.9 6.3 6.6 7.0	6.0 6.4 6.8 7.2 7.6	6.5 6.9 7.3 7.7 8.1	7.0 7.4 7.8 8.3 8.7	7.4 7.9 8.4 8.8 9.3	7.9 8.4 8.9 9.4 10.0
21	0.61	1.22	1.83	2.4	3.1	3.7	4.3	4.9	5.5	6.7	7.3	7.9	8.6	9.2	9.8	10.4
22	0.64	1.28	1.92	2.6	3.2	3.8	4.5	5.1	5.8	7.0	7.7	8.3	9.0	9.6	10.2	10.9
23	0.67	1.34	2.01	2.7	3.3	4.0	4.7	5.4	6.0	7.4	8.0	8.7	9.4	10.0	10.7	11.4
24	0.70	1.40	2.09	2.8	3.5	4.2	4.9	5.6	6.3	7.7	8.4	9.1	9.8	10.5	11.2	11.9
25 .	0.73	1.45	2.18	2.9	3.6	4.4	5.1	5.8	6.5	8.0	8.7	9.4	10.2	10.9	11.6	12.4
26	0.76	1.51	2.27	3.0	3.8	4.5	5.3	6.0	6.8	8.3	9.1	9.8	10.6	11.3	12.1	12.9
27	0.79	1.57	2.36	3.1	3.9	4.7	5.5	6.3	7.1	8.6	9.4	10.2	11.0	11.8	12.6	13.3
28	0.81	1.63	2.44	3.3	4.1	4.9	5.7	6.5	7.3	9.0	9.8	10.6	11.4	12.2	13.0	13.8
29	0.84	1.69	2.53	3.4	4.2	5.1	5.9	6.7	7.6	9.3	10.1	11.1	11.8	12.6	13.5	14.3
30	0.87	1.74	2.62	3.5	4.4	5.2	6.1	7.0	7.8	9.6	10.5	11.3	12.2	13.1	14.0	14.8
31	0.90	1.80	2.70	3.6	4.5	5.4	6.3	7.2	8.1	9.9	10.8	11.7	12.6	13.5	14.4	15.3
32	0.93	1.86	2.79	3.7	4.7	5.6	6.5	7.4	8.4	10.2	11.2	12.1	13.0	14.0	14.9	15.8
33	0.96	1.92	2.88	3.8	4.8	5.8	6.7	7.7	8.6	10.6	11.5	12.5	13.4	14.4	15.4	16.3
34	0.99	1.98	2.97	4.0	4.9	5.9	6.9	7.9	8.9	10.9	11.9	12.9	13.8	14.8	15.8	16.8
35	1.02	2.04	3.05	4.1	5.1	6.1	7.1	8.1	9.2	11.2	12.2	13.2	14.2	15.3	16.3	17.3
36	1.05	2.09	3.14	4.2	5.2	6.3	7.3	8.4	9.4	11.5	12.6	13.6	14.7	15.7	16.7	17.8
37	1.08	2.15	3.23	4.3	5.4	6.5	7.5	8.6	9.7	11.8	12.9	14.0	15.1	16.1	17.2	18,3
38	1.11	2.21	3.32	4.4	5.5	6.6	7.7	8.8	9.9	12.2	13.3	14.4	15.5	16.6	17.7	18.8
39	1.13	2.27	3.40	4.5	5.7	6.8	8.0	9.1	10.2	12.5	13.6	14.7	15.9	17.0	18.2	19.3
40	1.16	2.33	3.49	4.7	5.8	7.0	8.1	9.3	10.5	12.5	14.0	15.1	16.3	17.4	18.6	19.8
41	1.19	2.38	3.58	4.8	6.0	7.2	8.3	9.5	10.7	13.1	14.3	15.5	16.7	17.9	19.1	20.3
42	1.22	2.44	3.66	4.9	6.1	7.3	8.6	9.8	11.0	13.4	14.7	15.9	17.1	18.3	19.5	20.7
43	1.25	2.50	3.75	5.0	6.2	7.5	8.8	10.0	11.2	13.8	15.0	16.2	17.5	18.8	20.0	21.2
44	1.28	2.56	3.84	5.1	6.4	7.7	9.0	10.2	11.5	14.1	15.4	16.6	17.9	19.2	20.5	21.8
45	1.31	2.62	3.93	5.2	6.5	7.8	9.2	10.5	11.8	14.4	15.7	17.0	18.3	19.6	20.9	22.2
46	1.34	2.63-	4.01	5.4	6.7	8.0	9.4	10.7	12.0	14.7	16.1	17.4	18.7	20.1	21.4	22.7
47	1.37	2.73	4.10	5.5	6.8	8.2	9.6	10.9	12.3	15.0	16.4	17.8	19.1	20.5	21.9	23.2
48	1.40	2.79	4.19	5.6	7.0	8.4	9.8	11.2	12.6	15.4	16.8	18.1	19.5	20.9	22.3	23.7
49	1.42	2.85	4.28	5.7	7.1	8.6	10.0	11.4	12.8	15.7	17.1	18.5	20.0	21.4	22.8	24.2
50	1.45	2.91	4.36	5.8	7.3	8.7	10.2	11.6	13.1	16.0	17.4	18.9	20.4	21.8	23.3	24.7
51	1.48	2.97	4.45	5.9	7.4	8.9	10.4	11.9	13.4	16.3	17.8	19.3	20.8	22.2	23.7	25.2
52	1.51	3.62	4.54	6.0	7.6	9.1	10.6	12.1	13.6	16.6	18.2	19.7	21.2	22.7	24.2	25.7
53	1.54	3.08	4.62	6.2	7.7	9.2	10.8	12.3	13.9	17.0	18.5	20.0	21.6	23.1	24.7	26.2
54	1.57	3.14	4.71	6.3	7.8	9.4	11.0	12.6	14.1	17.3	18.8	20.4	22.0	23.6	25.1	26.7
55	1.60	3.20	4.80	6.4	8.0	9.6	11.2	12.8	14.4	17.6	19.2	20.8	22.4	24.0	25.6	27.2
56	1.63	3.26	4.88	6.5	8.1	9.8	11.4	13.0	14.7	17.9	19.5	21.2	22.8	24.4	26.1	27.7
57	1.66	3.32	4.97	6.6	8.3	9.9	11.6	13.3	14.9	18.2	19.9	21.6	23.2	24.9	26.5	28.2
58	1.69	3.37	5.06	6.7	8.4	10.1	11.8	13.5	15.2	18.6	20.2	21.9	23.6	25.3	27.0	28.7
59	1.72	3.43	5.15	6.9	8.6	10.3	12.0	13.7	15.4	18.9	20.6	22.3	24.0	25.7	27.5	29.2
Horz. Dist.	99.99	199.9	299.9	399.9	499.9	599.9	699.9	799.9	899.9	1099	1199	1299	1399	1499	1599	1699

TABLE III.—(Continued)

								.0°								
	3500	3400	3300	3200	3100	2900	2800	2700	2600	2500	2400	2300	2200	2100	1900	1800
1 2 3 4 5	1.0 2.0 3.1 4.1 5.1	1.0 2.0 3.0 4.0 4.9	0.9 1.9 2.9 3.8 4.8	0.9 1.9 2.8 3.7 4.7	0.9 1.8 2.7 3.6 4.5	0.8 1.7 2.5 3.4 4.2	0.8 1.6 2.4 3.3 4.1	0.8 1.6 2.4 3.1 3.9	0.8 1.5 2.3 3.0 3.8	0.7 1.4 2.2 2.9 3.6	0.7 1.4 2.1 2.7 3.5	0.7 1.3 2.0 2.7 3.4	0.6 1.3 1.9 2.6 3.2	0.6 1.2 1.8 2.4 3.1	0.6 1:1 1.7 2.2 2.8	0.5 1.0 1.6 2.1 2.6
6 7 8 9 10	6.1 7.1 8.1 9.2 10.2	5.9 6.9 7.9 8.9 9.9	5.8 6.7 7.7 8.6 9.6	5.6 6.5 7.4 8.4 9.3	5.4 6.3 7.2 8.1 9.0	5.1 5.9 6.7 7.6 8.4	4.9 5.7 6.5 7.3 8.1	4.7 5.5 6.3 7.1 7.9	4.5 5.3 6.0 6.8 7.6	4.4 5.1 5.8 6.6 7.3	4.2 4.9 5.6 6.3 7.0	4.0 4.7 5.3 6.0 6.7	3.8 4.5 5.1 5.8 6.4	3.7 4.3 4.9 5.5 6.1	3.3 3.9 4.4 5.0 5.5	3.1 3.7 4.2 4.7 5.2
11 12 13 14 15	11.2 12.2 13.2 14.2 15.3	10.9 11.9 12.8 13.8 14.8	10.6 11.5 12.5 13.4 14.4	10.2 11.2 12.1 13.0 14.0	9.9 10.8 11.7 12.6 13.5	9.3 10.1 11.0 11.8 12.7	11.4	8.6 9.4 10.2 11.0 11.8	8.3 9.1 9.8 10.6 11.3	8.0 8.7 9.4 10.2 10.9	7.7 8.4 9.1 9.8 10.5	7.4 8.0 8.7 9.4 10.0	7.0 7.7 8.3 9.0 9.6	6.7 7.3 7.9 8.5 9.2	6.1 6.6 7.2 7.7 8.2	5.8 6.3 6.8 7.3 7.9
16 17 18 19 20	16.3 17.3 18.3 19.3 20.4	15.8 16.8 17.8 18.8 19.8	15.4 16.3 17.3 18.2 19.2	14.0 15.8 16.7 17.7 18.6	14.4 15:3 16.2 17.1 18.0	13.5 14.3 15.2 16.0 16.9	14.7	12.6 13.4 14.1 14.9 15.7	12.1 12.9 13.6 14.4 15.1	11.6 12.4 13.1 13.8 14.6	11.2 11.9 12.6 13.3 14.0	10.7 11.4 12.0 12.7 13.4	10.2 10.9 11.5 12.2 12.8	9.8 10.4 11.0 11.6 12.2	8.8 9.4 9.9 10.5 11.1	8.4 8.9 9.4 9.9
21 22 23 24 25	21.4 22.4 23.4 24.4 25.4	20.8 21.8 22.7 23.7 24.7	20.2 21.1 22.1 23.0 24.0	19.6 20.5 21.4 22.3 23.3	18.9 19.8 20.7 21.6 22.5	17.7 18.6 19.4 20.2 21.1	17.1 17.9 18.7 19.5 20.4	16.5 17.3 18.1 18.8 19.6	15.9 16.6 17.4 18.1 18.9	15.3 16.0 16.7 17.4 18.2	14.7 15.4 16.1 16.8 17.4	14.0 14.7 15.4 16.0 16.7	13.4 14.1 14.7 15.4 16.0	12.8 13.4 14.0 14.7 15.3	11.6 12.2 12.7 13.3 13.8	11.0 11.5 12.0 12.6 13.1
26 27 28 29 30	26.5 27.5 28.5 29.5 30.5	25.7 26.7 27.7 28.7 29.7	25.0 25.9 26.9 27.8 28.8	24.2 25.1 26.1 27.0 27.9	23.4 24.4 25.2 26.1 27.0	21.9 22.8 23.6 24.5 25.3	21.2 22.0 22.8 23.6 24.4	20.4 21.2 22.4 22.8 23.6	19.7 20.4 21.2 21.9 22.7	18.9 19.6 20.4 21.1 21.8	18.2 18.8 19.5 20.2 20.9	17.4 18.1 18.7 19.4 20.1	16.6 17.3 17.9 18.6 19.2	15.9 16.5 17.1 17.7 18.3	14.4 14.9 15:5 16.0 16.6	13.6 14.1 14.7 15.2 15.7
31 32 33 34 35	31.5 32.6 33.6 34.6 35.6	30.6 31.7 32.6 33.6 34.6	29.7 30.7 31.7 32.6 33.6	28.8 29.8 30.7 31.6 32.6	27.9 28.9 29.8 30.7 31.6	26.1 27.0 27.8 28.7 29.5	25.2 26.1 26.9 27.7 28.5	24.3 25.1 25.9 26.7 27.5	23.4 24.2 25.0 25.7 26.5	22.5 23.3 24.0 24.7 25.4	21.6 22.3 23.0 23.7 24.4	20.7 21.4 22.1 22.7 23.4	19.8 20.5 21.1 21.8 22.4	18.9 19.5 20.2 20.8 21.4	17.1 17.7 18.2 18.8 19.3	16.2 16.8 17.3 17.8 18.3
36 37 38 39 40	36.6 37.7 38.7 39.7 40.7	35.6 35.6 37.6 38.6 39.6		33.5 34.4 35.4 36.3 37.2	32:5 33.4 34.3 35.2 36.1		30.9	28.3 29.0 29.8 30.6 31.4	28.7	26.2 26.9 27.6 28.4 29.1	25.1 25.8 26.5 27.2 27.9	24.1 24.7 25.4 26.1 26.8	23.0 23.7 24.3 25.0 25.6	22.0 22.6 23.2 23.8 24.4	19.9 20.4 21.0 21.6 22.1	18.8 19.4 19.9 20.4 20.9
41 42 43 44 45	41.7 42.7 43.8 44.8 45.8	40.5 41.5 42.5 43.5 44.5	42.2	38.2 39.1 40.0 41.0 41.9	37.0 37.9 38.8 39.7 40.6		35.8	32.2 33.0 33.8 34.6 35.3	31.0 31.8 32.5 33.3 34.0	29.8 30.5 31.3 32.0 32.7	28.6 29.3 30.0 30.7 31.4	27.4 28.1 28.8 29.4 30.1	26.2 26.9 27.5 28.2 28.8	25.0 25.6 26.3 26.9 27.5	22.7 23.2 23.8 24.3 24.9	21.5 22.0 22.5 23.0 23.6
46 47 48 49 50		45.5 46.5 47.5 48.5 49.4	45.1 46.1 47.0	42.8 43.7 44.7 45.6 46.5	41.5 42.4 43.3 44.2 45.1	.38.8 39.6 40.5 41.3 42.2	39.1	36.1 36.9 37.7 38.5 39.3		33.4 34.2 34.9 35.6 36.4	32.1 32.8 33.5 34.2 34.9	30.8 31.4 32.1 32.8 33.0	29.4 30.1 30.7 31.4 32.0	28.1 28.7 29.3 29.9 30.6	25.4 26.0 26.5 27.1 27.6	24.1 24.6 25.1 25.6 26.2
51 52 53 54 55	54.0 55.0	52.4	49.9 50.9 51.8	48.4 49.3 50.2	46.0 46.9 47.8 48.7 49.6	43.9	42.4 43.2 44.0	40.0 40.8 41.6 42.4 43.2	40.1	37.1 37.8 38.5 39.2 40.0	35.6 36.3 37.0 37.7 38.4	34.2 34.8 35.4 36.1 36.8	32.6 33.3 33.9 34.5 35.2	31.2 31.8 32.4 33.0 33.6	28.2 28.7 29.3 29.8 30.4	26.7 27.2 27.7 28.3 28.8
56 57 58 59	58.0 59.0	57.4	55.7	53.1 54.0	50.5 51.4 52.3 53.2	48.1 48.9	47.2	43.4 44.8 45.5 46.3	43.9	40.7 41.4 42.2 42.9	39.1 39.8 40.5 41.2	37.5 38.1 38.8 39.5	35.8 36.5 37.1 37.8	34.2 34.8 35.4 36.0	30.9 31.5 32.0 32.6	29.3 29.8 30.4 30.9
Hor Dist	3499	3399	3299	3199	3099	2899	2799	2699	2599	2499	2399	2299	2199	2099	1899	1799

TABLE III.—(Continued)

								10								
	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1100	1200	1300	1400	1500	1600	1700
0 1 2 3 4 5	1.74 1.77 1.80 1.83 1.86 1.89	3.49 3.55 3.61 3.66 3.72 3.78	5.24 5.32 5.41 5.50 5.58 5.67	7.0 7.1 7.2 7.3 7.4 7.6	8.7 8.9 9.0 9.2 9.3 9.4	10.5 10.6 10.8 11.0 11.2 11.3	12.2 12.4 12.6 12.8 13.0 13.2	14.0 14.2 14.4 14.7 14.7	15.7 16.0 16.2 16.5 16.7	19.2 19.5 19.8 20.1 20.5 20.8	20.9 21.3 21.6 22.0 22.3 22.7	22.7 23.1 23.4 23.8 24.2 24.6	24.4 24.8 25.2 25.6 26.1 26.5	26.2 26.6 27.0 27.5 27.9 28.4	27.9 28.4 28.8 29.3 29.8 30.2	29.7 30.2 30.6 31.1 31.6 32.1
6 7 8 9	1.92 1.95 1.98 2.01 2.04	3.84 3.90 3.96 4.01 4.07	5.76 5.84 5.93 6.02 6.11	7.7 7.8 7.9 8.0 8.1	9.6 9.7 9.9 10.0 10.2	11.5 11.7 11.9 12.0 12.2	13.4 13.6 13.8 14.0 14.2	15.4 15.6 15.8 16.0 16.3	17.3 17.5 17.8 18.1 18.3	21.1 21.4 21.7 22.1 22.4	23.0 23.4 23.7 24.1 24.4	24.9 25.3 25.7 26.1 26.5	26.8 27.3 27.7 28.1 28.5	28.8 29.2 29.7 30.1 30.5	30.7 31.2 31.6 32.1 32.6	32.6 33.1 33.6 34.1 34.6
11 12 13 14 15	2.06 2.09 2.12 2.15 2.18	4.13 4.19 4.25 4.30 4.36	6.19 6.28 6.37 6.46 6.54	8.3 8.4 8.5 8.6 8.7	10.3 10.5 10.6 10.8 10.9	12.4 12.6 12.7 12.9 13.1	14.4 14.7 14.9 15.1 15.3	16.5 16.7 17.0 17.2 17.4	18.6 18.8 19.1 19.4 19.6	22.7 23.0 23.3 23.7 24.0	24.8 25.1 25.5 25.8 26.2	26.8 27.2 27.6 28.0 28.4	28.9 29.3 29.7 30.1 30.5	31.4 31.8 32.3 32.7	33.0 33.5 34.0 34.4 34.9	35.1 35.6 36.1 36.6 37.1
16 17 18 19 20	2.21 2.24 2.27 2.30 2.33	4.42 4.48 4.54 4.59 4.65	6.63 6.72 6.80 6.89 6.98	8.8 9.0 9.1 9.2 9.3	11.0 11.2 11.3 11.5 11.6	13.3 13.4 13.6 13.8 14.0	15.5 15.7 15.9 16.1 16.3	17.7 17.9 18.1 18.4 18.6	19.9 20.2 20.4 20.7 20.9	24.3 24.6 24.9 25.3 25.6	26.5 26.9 27.2 27.6 27.9	28.7 29.1 29.5 29.9 30.2	30.9 31.3 31.7 32.2 62.6	33.2 33.6 34.0 34.5 34.9	35.4 35.8 36.3 36.8 37.2	37.6 38.1 38.6 39.0 39.6
21 22 23 24 25	2.36 2.38 2.41 2.44 2.47	4.71 4.77 4.83 4.88 4.94	7.07 7.15 7.24 7.33 7.41	9.4 9.5 9.6 9.8 9.9	11.8 11.9 12.1 12.2 12.4	14.1 14.3 14.5 14.7 14.8	16.5 16.7 16.9 17.1 17.3	18.8 19.1 19.3 19.5 19.8	21.2 21.5 21.7 22.0 22.2	25.9 26.2 26.5 26.9 27.2	28.3 28.6 29.0 29.3 29.7	30.6 31.0 31.4 31.8 32.1	33.0 33.4 33.8 34.2 34.6	35.3 35.8 36.2 36.6 37.1	37.7 38.1 38.6 39.1 39.5	40.0 40.5 41.0 41.5 42.0
26 27 28 29 30	2.50 2.53 2.56 2.59 2.62	5.00 5.06 5.12 5.18 5.23	7.50 7.59 7.68 7.76 7.85	10.0 10.1 10.2 10.4 10.5	12.5 12.6 12.8 12.9 13.1	15.0 15.2 15.4 15.5 15.7	17.5 17.7 17.9 18.1 18.3	20.0 20.2 20.5 20.7 20.9	22.5 22.8 23.0 23.3 23.6	27.5 27.8 28.1 28.5 28.8	30.0 30.3 30.7 31.0 31.4	32.5 32.9 33.3 33.6 34.0	35.0 35.4 35.8 36.2 36.6	37.5 37.9 38.4 38.8 39.3	40.0 40.5 40.9 41.4 41.9	42.5 43.0 43.5 44.0 44.5
31 32 33 34 35	2.65 2.68 2.70 2.73 2.76	5.29 5.35 5.41 5.47 5.52	7.94 8.02 8.11 8.20 8.29	10.6- 10.7- 10.8- 10.9- 11.0	13.2 13.4 13.5 13.7 13.8	15.9 16.0 16.2 16.4 16.6	18.5 18.7 18.9 19.1 19.3	21.2 21.4 21.6 21.9 22.1	23.8 24.1 24.3 24.6 24.9	29.1 29.4 29.7 30.1 30.4	31.8 32.1 32.4 32.8 33.1	34.4 34.8 35.2 35.5 35.9	37.0 37.4 37.9 38.3 38.7	39.7 40.1 40.6 41.0 41.4	42.3 42.8 43.3 43.7 44.2	45.5 46.0 46.5 47.0
36 37 38 39 40	2.79 2.82 2.85 2.88 2.91	5.58 5.64 5.70 5.76 5.81	8.37 8.46 8.55 8.63 8.72	11.2 11.3 11.4 11.5 11.6	14.0 14.1 14.2 14.4 14.5	16.7 16.9 17.1 17.3 17.4	19.5 19.7 19.9 20.1 20.3	22.3 22.6 22.8 23.0 23.3	25.1 25.4 25.6 25.9 26.2	30.7 31.0 31.3 31.7 32.0	33.5 33.8 34.2 34.5 34.9	36.3 36.7 37.0 37.4 37.8	39.1 39.5 39.9 40.3 40.7	41.9 42.3 42.7 43.2 43.6	44.7 45.1 45.6 46.0 46.5	47.4 47.9 48.4 48.9 49.4
41 42 43 44 45	2.94 2.97 3.00 3.02 3.05	5.87 5.93 5.99 6.05 6.10	8.81 8.90 8.98 9.07 9.16	11.8 11.9 12.0 12.1 12.2	14.7 14.8 15.0 15.1 15.3	17.6 17.8 18.0 18.1 18.3	20.6 20.8 21.0 21.2 21.4	23.5 23.7 24.0 24.2 24.4	26.4 28.7 27.0 27.2 27.5	32.3 32.6 32.9 33.3 33.6	35.2 35.6 35.9 36.3 36.6	38.2 38.6 38.9 39.3 39.7	41.1 41.5 41.9 42.3 42.7	44.0 44.5 44.9 45.3 45.8	47.0 47.4 47.9 48.4 48.8	49.9 50.4 50.9 51.4 51.9
46 47 48 49 50	3.08 3.11 3.14 3.17 3.20	6.16 6.22 6.28 6.34 6.40	9.24 9.33 9.42 9.50 9.59	12.3 12.4 12.6 12.7 12.8	15.4 15.6 15.7 15.8 16.0	18.5 18.7 18.8 19.0 19.2	21.6 21.8 22.0 22.2 22.4	24.6 24.9 25.1 25.3 25.6	27.7 28.0 28.3 28.5 28.8	33.9 34.2 34.5 34.8 35.2	37.0 37.3 37.7 38.0 38.4	40.1 40.4 40.8 41.2 41.6	43.1 43.5 43.9 44.4 44.8	46.2 46.7 47.1 47.5 48.0	49.3 49.8 50.2 50.7 51.2	52.4 52.9 53.4 53.9 54.4
51 52 53 54 55	3.23 3.26 3.29 3.31 3.34	6.45 6.51 6.57 6.63 6.68	9.68 9.77 9.85 9.94 10.03	12.9 13.0 13.1 13.2 13.4	16.1 16.3 16.4 16.6 16.7	19.4 19.5 19.7 19.9 20.1	22.6 22.8 23.0 23.2 23.4	25.8 26.0 26.3 26.5 26.7	29.0 29.3 29.6 29.8 30.1	35.5 35.8 36.1 36.4 36.8	38.7 39.1 39.4 39.8 40.1	41.9 42.3 42.7 43.1 43.4	45.2 45.6 46.0 46.4 46.8	48.4 48.8 49.3 49.7 50.1	51.6 52.1 52.6 53.0 53.5	54.8 55.3 55.8 56.3 56.8
56 57 58 59	3.37 3.40 3.43 3.46	6.80 6.86 6.92	10.38	13.5 13.6 13.7 13.8	16.9 17.0 17.2 17.3	20.2 20.4 20.6 20.7	23.6 23.8 24.0 24.2	27.0 27.2 27.4 27.7	30.3 30.6 30.9 31.1	37.1 37.4 37.7 38.0	40.5 40.8 41.2 41.5	43.8 44.2 44.6 45.0	47.2 47.6 48.0 48.4	50.6 51.0 51.5 51.9	53.9 54.4 54.9 55.3	57.3 57.8 58.3 58.8
Horz. Dist.	99.93	199.9	299.8	399.7	499.6	599	699	799	899	1099	1199	1299	1399	1499	1599	1699

TABLE III. —(Continued)

								1°								
1800	1900	2100	2200	2300	2400	2500	2500	2700	2800	2900	3100	3200	3300	3400	3500	
31.4 31.9 32.4 33.0 33.5 34.0	33.2 33.7 34.3 34.8 35.4 35.9	39.1	38.4 39.0 39.7 40.3 40.9 41.6	40.1 40.8 41.5 42.1 42.8 43.5	41.9 42.6 43.3 44.0 44.7 45.4	43.6 44.4 45.1 45.8 46.5 47.3	45.4 46.1 46.9 47.6 48.4 49.1	47.1 47.9 48.7 49.5 50.3 51.0	48.9 49.7 50.5 51.3 52.1 52.9	50.6 51.4 52.3 53.1 54.0 54.8	54.0 55.0 55.9 56.8 57.7 58.6	55.8 56.8 57.7 58.6 59.6 60.5	57.6 58.5 59.5 60.5 61.4 62.4	59.3 60.3 61.3 62.3 63.3 64.3	61.1 62.1 63.1 64.1 65.1 66.2	0 1 2 3 4 5
34.5 35.1 35.6 36.1 36.6	36.5 37.0 37.6 38.1 38.7	40.3 40.9 41.5 42.1 42.7	42.2 42.9 43.5 44.1 44.8	44.1 44.8 45.5 46.1 46.8	46.1 46.7 47.5 48.2 48.8	48.0 48.7 49.4 50.2 50.9	49.9 50.6 51.4 52.2 52.9	51.8 52.6 53.4 54.2 55.0	53.7 54.5 55.4 56.2 57.0	55.7 56.5 57.3 58.2 59.0	59.5 60.4 61.3 62.2 63.1	61.4 62.3 63.3 64.2 65.1	63.3 64.3 65.3 66.2 67.2	65.3 66.2 67.2 68.2 69.2	67.2 68.2 69.2 70.2 71.2	6 7 8 9 10
37.2 37.7 38.2 38.7 39.3	39.2 39.8 40.3 40.9 41.4	43.3 44.0 44.6 45.2 45.8	45.4 46.1 46.7 47.3 48.0	47.5 48.2 48.8 49.5 50.2	49.5 50.3 50.9 51.6 52.3	51.6 52.4 53.1 53.8 54.5	53.7 54.4 55.2 55.9 56.7	55.7 56.5 57.3 58.1 58.9	57.8 58.6 59.4 60.3 61.1	59.9 60.7 61.6 62.4 63.2	64.9 64.9 65.8 66.7 67.6	66.1 67.0 67.9 68.9 69.8	68.1 69.1 70.1 71.0 72.0	70.2 71.2 72.2 73.2 74.1	72.3 73.3 74.3 75.3 76.3	11 12 13 14 15
39.8 40.3 40.8 41.3 41.9	42.0 42.5 43.1 43.6 44.2	46.4 47.0 47.6 48.2 48.9	48.6 49.3 49.9 50.5 51.2	50.8 51.5 52.2 52.8 53.5	53.0 53.7 54.4 55.1 55.8	55.2 56.0 56.7 57.4 58.2	57.5 58.2 59.0 59.7 60.5	59.7 60.5 61.2 62.0 62.8	61.9 62.7 63.5 64.3 65.1	64.1 64.9 65.8 66.6 67.5	68.5 69.4 70.3 71.2 72.1	70.7 71.6 72.6 73.5 74.4	72.9 73.9 74.8 75.8 76.8	75.1 76.1 77.1 78.1 79.1	77.4 78.4 79.4 80.4 81.4	16 17 18 19 20
42.4 42.9 43.4 44.0 44.5	44.8 45.3 45.9 46.4 47.0	49.5 50.1 50.7 51.3 51.9	51.8 52.5 53.1 53.7 54.4	54.2 54.8 55.5 56.2 56.8	56,5 57.2 57.9 58.6 59.3	58.9 59.6 60.3 61.1 61.8	61.2 62.0 62.8 63.5 64.3	63.6 64.4 65.2 65.9 66.7	65.9 66.8 67.6 68.4 69.2	68.3 69.2 70.0 70.8 71.7	73.0 73.9 74.8 75.7 76.6	75.4 76.3 77.2 78.2 79.1	77.7 78.7 79.6 80.6 81.6	80.1 81.1 82.1 83.0 84.0	82.4 83.5 84.5 85.5 86.5	21 22 23 24 25
45.0 45.5 46.0 46.6 47.1	47.5 48.1 48.6 49.2 49.7	52.5 53.1 53.7 54.3 55.0	55.0 55.6 56.3 56.9 57.6	57.5 58.2 53.8 59.5 60.2	60.0 60.7 61.4 62.1 62.8	62.5 63.2 64.0 64.7 65.4	65.0 65.8 66.5 67.3 68.0	67.5 68.3 69.1 69.9 70.7	71.6	72.5 73.4 74.2 75.0 75.9	77.5 78.4 79.3 80.2 81.1	80.0 80.9 81.9 82.8 83.7	82.5 83.5 84.5 85.4 86.4	85.0 86.0 87.0 88.0 89.0	87.5 88.5 89.5 90.6 91.6	26 27 28 29 30
47.6 48.2 48.7 49.2 49.7	50.3 50.8 51.4 51.9 52.5	55.6 56.2 56.8 57.4 58.0	58.2 58.8 59.5 60.1 60.8	60.9 61.5 62.2 62.9 63.5	63.5 64.2 64.9 65.6 66.3	66.2 66.9 67.6 68.3 69.0	68.8 69.6 70.3 71.1 71.8	71.4 72.2 73.0 73.8 74.6	74.1 74.9 75.7 76.5 77.3	76.7 77.6 78.4 79.3 80.1	82.0 82.9 83.8 84.7 85.6	84.7 85.6 86.5 87.5 88.4	87.3 .88.3 89.2 90.2 91.1	90.0 91.0 91.9 92.9 93.9	92.6 93.6 94.6 95.7 96.7	31 32 33 34 35
50.2 50.8 51.3 51.8 52.3	53,0 53.6 54.1 54.7 55.2	59.2 59.8 60.4	62.7 63.3	64.2 64.9 65.5 66.2 66.9	67.0 67.7 68.4 69.1 69.8	69.8 70.5 71.2 72.0 72.7	72.6 73.3 74.1 74.8 75.6	75.4 76.1 76.9 77.7 78.5	78.1 79.0 79.8 80.6 81.4	80.9 81.8 82.6 83.5 84.3	88.3	91.2		97.8	97.7 98.7 99.7 100.7 101.7	36 37 38 39 40
52.9 53.4 53.9 54.4 54.9	55.8 56.3 56.9 57.4 58.0	62.9	65.2 65.9 66.5	68.9	70.5 71.2 71.9 72.6 73.3	74.9	77.1 77.9 78.6	80.9	83.9 84.7	85.2 86.0 86.9 87.7 88.5	91.9 92.8 93.7	94.9 95.8 96.7	98.8	100.8 101.8 102.8	102.8 103.8 104.8 105.8 106.8	41 42 43 44 45
55.5 56.0 56.5 57.0 57.6	58.5 59.1 59.7 60.2 60.8	65.3 65.9 66.5	68.4 69.1 69.7	72.2	76.0	77.8 78.5	80.9 81.6 82.4	84.8	87.1 87.9 88.7	90.2 91.0 91.9	96.4 97.3 98.2	99.5 100.5 101.4	102.6 103.6 104.6	105.8 106.7 107.7	107.8 108.9 109.9 110.9 111.9	46 47 48 49 50
58.1 58.6 59.1 59.6 60.2	61.3 61.8 62.4 63.0 63.5	68.4 69.0 69.6	71.6 72.3 73.9	74.9 75.5 76.2	78.8 79.5	81.4 82.1 82.8	84.6 85.4 86.2	87.9 88.7 89.5	91.2 92.0 92.8	94.4 95.2 96.1	100.9 101.8 102.7	104.2 105.1 106.0	107.4 108.4 109.3	110.7 111.7 112.7	112.9 113.9 115.0 116.0 117.0	51 52 53 54 55
60.7 61.2 61.7 62.3	64.1 64.6 65.2 65.7	72.0	74.8	78.2 78.9	81.6	85.8	88.4	91.8 92.6	95.2 96.0	97.8 98.6 99.5 100.3	105.4	107.9 108.8 109.8 110.7	112.2	115.6	118.0 119.0 120.0 121.1	56 57 58 59
1799	1899	2098	2198	2298	2398	2498	2598	2698	2798	2898	3098	3198	3298	3398	3498	Horz. Dist.

Table III.—(Continued)

								2							,	
	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1100	1200	1300	1400	1500	1600	1700
0 1 2 3 4 5	3.49 3.52 3.55 3.58 3.60 3.63	6.98 7.03 7.09 7.15 7.21 7.27	10.46 10.55 10.64 10.72 10.81 10.90	14.0 14.1 14.2 14.3 14.4 14.5	17.4 17.6 17.7 17.9 18.0 18.2	20.9 21.1 21.3 21.4 21.6 21.8	24.4 24.6 24.8 25.0 25.2 25.4	27.9 28.1 28.4 28.6 28.8 29.1	31.4 31.7 31.9 32.2 32.4 32.7	38.4 38.7 39.0 39.3 39.6 40.0	41.9 42.2 42.6 42.9 43.2 43.6	45.3 45.7 46.1 46.5 46.8 47.2	48.8 49.2 49.6 50.0 50.5 50.9	52.3 52.8 53.2 53.6 54.1 54.5	55.8 56.3 56.7 57.2 57.7 58.1	59.3 59.8 60.3 60.8 61.3
6 7 8 9	3.66 3.69 3.72 3.75 3.78	7.32 7.38 7.44 7.50 7.56	10.99 11.07 11.16 11.25 11.33	14.6 14.8 14.9 15.0 15.1	18.3 18.5 18.6 18.7 18.9	22.0 22.1 22.3 22.5 22.7	25.6 25.8 26.0 26.2 26.4	29.3 29.5 29.8 30.0 30.2	33.0 33.2 33.5 33.7 34.0	40.3 40.6 40.9 41.2 41.6	43.9 44.3 44.6 45.0 45.3	47.6 48.0 48.4 48.7 49.1	51.3 51.7 52.1 52.5 52.9	54.9 55.4 55.8 56.2 56.7	58.6 59.1 59.5 60.0 60.4	62.2 62.7 63.2 63.7 64.2
11 12 13 14 15	3.81 3.84 3.86 3.89 3.92	7.61 7.67 7.73 7.79 7.85	11.42 11.51 11.60 11.68 11.77	15.2 15.3 15.5 15.6 15.7	19.0 19.2 19.3 19.5 19.6	22.8 23.0 23.2 23.4 23.5	26.6 26.8 27.1 27.3 27.5	30.5 30.7 30.9 31.1 31.4	34.3 34.5 34.8 35.0 85.3	41.9 42.2 42.5 42.8 43.1	45.7 46.0 46.4 43.7 47.1	49.5 49.9 50.2 50.6 51.0	53.3 53.7 54.1 54.5 54.9	57.1 57.5 58.0 58.4 58.8	60.9 61.4 61.8 62.3 62.8	64.7 65.2 65.7 66.2 66.7
16 17 18 19 20	3.95 3.98 4.01 4.04 4.07	7.90 7.96 8.02 8.08 8.14	11.86 11.94 12.03 12.12 12.20	15.8 15.9 16.0 16.2 16.3	19.8 19.9 20.0 20.2 20.3	23.7 23.9 24.1 24.2 24.4	27.7 27.9 28.1 28.3 28.5	31.6 31.8 32.1 32.3 32.5	35.6 35.8 36.1 36.3 36.6	43.5 43.8 44.1 44.4 44.7	47.4 47.8 48.1 48.5 48.8	51.4 51.7 52.1 52.5 52.9	55.3 55.7 56.1 56.5 56.9	59.3 59.7 60.2 60.6 61.0	63.2 63.7 64.2 64.6 65.1	67.2 67.7 68.2 68.7 69.2
21 22 23 24 25	4.10 4.13 4.16 4.18 4.21	8.19 8.25 8.31 8.37 8.43	12.29 12.38 12.46 12.55 12.64	16.4 16.5 16.6 16.7 16.8	20.5 20.6 20.8 20.9 21.1	24.6 24.8 24.9 25.1 25.3	28.7 28.9 29.1 29.3 29.5	32.8 33.0 33.2 33.5 33.7	36.9 37.1 37.4 37.7 37.9	45.1 45.4 45.7 46.0 46.3	49.2 49.5 49.9 50.2 50.6	53.3 53.6 54.0 54.4 54.8	57.4 57.8 58.2 58.6 59.0	61.5 61.9 62.3 62.8 63.2	65.6 66.0 66.5 66.9 67.4	69.6 70.1 70.6 71.1 71.6
26 27 28 29 30	4.24 4.27 4.30 4.33 4.36	8.48 8.54 8.60 8.66 8.716	12.73 12.81 12.90 12.99 13.07	17.0 17.1 17.2 17.3 17.4	21.2 21.4 21.5 21.6 21.8	25.4 25.6 25.8 26.0 26.1	29.7 29.9 30.1 30.3 30.5	33.9 34.2 34.4 34.6 34.9	38.4 38.7 39.0 39.2	46.7 47.0 47.3 47.6 47.9	50.9 51.2 51.6 51.9 52.3	55.1 55.5 55.9 56.3 56.6	59.4 59.8 60.2 60.6 61.0	63.6 64.1 64.5 64.9 65.4	67.9 68.3 68.8 69.3 69.7	72.1 72.6 73.1 73.6 74.1
31 32 33 34 35	4.39 4.42 4.44 4.47 4.50	8.774 8.831 8.889 8.947 9.005	13.25 13.33	17.5 17.7 17.8 17.9 18.0	21.9 22.1 22.2 22.4 22.5	26.3 26.5 26.7 26.8 27.0	30.7 30.9 31.1 31.3 31.5	35.1 35.3 35.6 35.8 36.0	39.5 39.7 40.0 40.3 40.5	48.3 48.6 48.9 49.2 49.5	52.6 53.0 53.3 53.7 54.0	57.0 57.4 57.8 58.2 58.5	61.4 61.8 62.2 62.6 63.0	65.8 66.2 66.7 67.1 67.5	70.2 70.6 71.1 71.6 72.0	74.6 75.1 75.6 76.0 76.5
36 37 38 39 40	4.53 4.56 4.59 4.62 4.65		13.86	18.1 18.2 18.4 18.5 18.6	22.7 22.8 22.9 23.1 23.2	27.2 27.4 27.5 27.7 27.9	31.7 31.9 32.1 32.3 32.5	36.2 36.5 36.7 36.9 37.2	40.8 41.0 41.3 41.6 41.8	49.8 50.2 50.5 50.8 51.1	54.4 54.7 55.1 55.4 55.8	58.9 59.3 59.7 60.0 60.4	63.4 63.8 64.2 64.7 65.1	68.4 68.8 69.3 69.7	72.5 73.0 73.4 73.9 74.4	77.1 77.5 78.0 78.5 79.0
41 42 43 44 45	4:68 4.71 4.73 4.76 4.79	9.411 9.469 9.527	14.03 14.12 14.20 14.29 14.38	18.7 18.8 18.9 19.0 19.2	23.4 23.5 23.7 23.8 24.0	28.1 28.2 28.4 28.6 28.8	32.7 32.9 33.1 33.3 33.5	37.4 37.6 37.9 38.1 38.3	42.1 42.3 42.6 42.9 43.1	51.4 51.8 52.1 52.4 52.7	56.1 56.5 56.8 57.2 57.5	60.8 61.2 61.5 61.9 62.3	65.5 65.9 66.3 66.7 67.1	70.1 70.6 71.0 71.4 71.9	74.8 75.3 75.8 76.3 76.7	79.5 80.0 80.5 81.0 81.5
46 47 48 49 50	4.82 4.85 4.88 4.91 4.94	9.642 9.700 9.758 9.816 9.874	14.64 14.72	19.3 19.4 19.5 19.6 19.7	24.1 24.2 24.4 24.5 24.7	28.9 29.1 29.3 29.4 29.6	33.7 34.0 34.1 34.4 34.6	38.6 38.8 39.0 39.3 39.5	43.4 43.6 43.9 44.2 44.4	53.0 53.4 53.7 54.0 54.3	57.8 58.2 58.5 58.9 59.2	62.7 63.0 63.4 63.8 64.2	67.5 67.9 68.3 68.7 69.1	72.3 72.8 73.2 73.6 74.1	77.1 77.6 78.1 78.5 79.0	82.0 82.4 82.9 83.4 83.9
51 52 53 54 55	5.05	9.932 9.990 10.048 10.106 10.164	14.98 15.07 15.16	19.9 20.0 20.1 20.2 20.3	24.8 25.0 25.1 25.3 25.4	29.8 30.0 30.1 30.3 30.5	34.8 35.0 35.2 35.4 35.6	39.7 40.0 40.2 40.4 40.7	44.7 45.0 45.2 45.5 45.7	54.6 54.9 55.3 55.6 55.9	59.6 59.9 60.3 60.6 61.0	64.6 64.9 65.3 65.7 66.1	69.5 69.9 70.3 70.7 71.1	74.5 74.9 75.4 75.8 76.2	79.5 79.9 80.4 80.8 81.3	84.4 84.9 85.4 85.9 86.4
56 57 58 59	5.14 5.17 5.20		15.51	20.4 20.6 20.7 20.8	25.6 25.7 25.8 26.0	30.7 30.8 31.0 31.2	35.8 36.0 36.2 36.4	40.9 41.1 41.3 41.6	46.0 46.3 46.5 46.8	56.2 56.5 56.8 57.2	61.3 61.7 62.0 62.4	66.4 66.8 67.2 67.6	71.5 71.9 72.4 72.8	76.7 77.1 77.5 78.0	81.8 82.2 82.7 83.2	86.9 87.4 87.9 88.4
Torz. Dist.	99.81	199.6	299.4	399.2	499.0	599	699	798	898	1098	1198	1297	1397	1497	1597	1697

Table III.—(Continued)

800	1900	2100	2200	2300	2400	2500	2600	2700	2800	2900	3100	3200	3300	3400	3500	
2.8 3.3 3.8 4.4 4.9	66.3 66.8 67.4 67.9 68.8 69.0	73.2 73.9 74.5 75.1 75.7 76.3	77.4 78.0 78.6 79.3	80.2 80.9 81.6 82.2 82.9 83.6	83.7 84.4 85.1 85.8 86.5 87.2	87.2 87.9 88.6 89.4 90.1 90.8	90.7 91.4 92.2 93.0 93.7 94.5	97.3	97.7 98.5 99.3 100.1 100.9 101.7	102.8 103.7 104.5	109.9 110.8 111.9	115.4	117.0 118.0 118.9	120.6 121.6 122.5	124.1 125.1 126.2	0 1 2 3 4 5
5.9 6.4 7.0 7.5 8.0	69.6 70.1 70.7 71.2 71.8	76.9 77.5 78.1 78.7 79.3	81.2 81.8 82.5	84.2 84.9 85.6 86.2 86.9	87.9 88.6 89.3 90.0 90.7	91.6 92.3 93.0 93.7 94.5	95.2 96.0 96.7 97.5 98.2	98.9 99.7 100.4 101.2 102.0	102.5 103.3 104.2 105.0 105.8	106.2 107.0 107.9 108.7 109.6	113.5 114.4 115.3 116.2 117.1	117.2 118.1 119.0 120.0 120.9	120.8 121.8 122.8 123.7 124.7	124.5 125.5 126.5 127.5 128.4	128.2 129.2 130.2 131.2 132:2	6 7 8 9 10
8.5 9.0 9.6 0.1 0.6	72.3 72.9 73.4 74.0 74.5	81.8	85.0	88.9 89.6	91.4 92.0 92.8 93.5 94.1	95.2 95.9 96.6 97.4 98.1	99.0 99.7 100.5 101.2 102.0	102.8 103.6 104.4 105.1 105.9	106.6 107.4 108.2 109.0 109.8	110.4 111.2 112.1 112.9 113.8	118.0 118.9 119.8 120.7 121.6	121.8 122.7 123.7 124.6 125.5	125.6 126.6 127.5 128.5 129.5	129.4 130.4 131.4 132.4 133.4	133.2 134.3 135.3 136.3 137.3	11 12 13 14 15
1.1 1.7 2.7 2.7 3.2	75.1 75.6 76.2 76.7 77.3	83.0 83.6 84.2 84.8 85.4	87.6 88.2 88.9	92.9	94.8 95.5 96.2 96.9 97.6	98.8 99.5 100.2 101.0 101.7	102.7 103.5 104.3 105.0 105.8	106.7 107.5 108.3 109.0 109.8	110.7 111.5 112.3 113.1 113.9	114.6 115.4 116.3 117.1 118.0	122.5 123.4 124.3 125.2 126.1	126.5 127.4 128.3 129.2 130.2	130.4 131.4 132.3 133.3 134.2	134.4 135.3 136.3 137.3 138.3	138.3 139.3 140.4 141.4 142.4	16 17 18 19 20
3.7 4.3 4.8 5.3 5.8	77.8 78.4 78.9 79.5 80.0	86.6 87.3	90.8 91.4 92.0	94.2 94.9 95.6 96.2 96.9	l qq n	102 2	1107 3	111 4	114.7 115.5 116.3 117.1 118.0	110 R	1127 0	1132 M	136 2	1140 3	143.4 144.4 145.4 146.4 147.5	21 22 23 24 25 -
6.4 6.9 7.4 7.9 8.4	80.6 81.1 81.7 82.2 82.8	89.1 89.7 90.3 90.9 91.5	93.3 94.0 94.6 95.3 95.9	97.6 98.2 98.9 99.6 100.2	102.5 103.2 103.9	106.8 107.5 108.2	111.0 111.8 112.5	115.3 116.1 116.9	118.8 119.6 120.4 121.2 122.0	123.9 124.7 125.5	132.4 133.3 134.2	136.7 137.6 138.5	141.9 141.9 142.9	145.2 146.2 147.2	149.5 150.5 151.5	26 27 28 29 30
9.0 9.5 0.0 0.5	83.3 83.9 84.4 85.0 85.5		96.5 97.1 97.8 98.4 99.1	100.9 101.6 102.2 102.9 103.6	105.3 106.0 106.7 107.4 108.1	109.7 110.4 111.1 111.8 112.6	114.1 114.8 115.6 116.3 117.1	118.4 119.2 120.0 120.8 121.6	122.8 123.6 124.4 125.3 126.1	127.2 128.0 128.9 129.7 130.6	136.0 136.9 137.8 138.7 139.6	140.4 141.3 142.2 143.1 144.1	144.8 145.7 146.7 147.6 148.6	149.2 150.1 151.1 152.1 153.1	153.5 154.5 155.6 156.6 157.6	31 32 33 34 35
1.6 2.1 2.6 3.1 3.7	86.1 86.7 87.2 87.8 88.3	95.2 95.8 96.4 97.0 97.6	100 3	104.2 104.9 105.6 106.2 106.9	100 5	114 0	1118 B	122 1	1127 7	122 2	1141 4	145 9	150 5	1155 1	1150 RI	36 37 38 39 40
4.2 4.7 5.2 5.7 6.3	90.5 91.1	98.8 99.4 100.0 100.6	103.5 104.2 104.8 105.4	107.6 108.2 108.9 109.6 110.2	112.9 113.6 114.3 115.0	117.6 118.4 119.1 119.8	122.3 123.1 123.8 124.6	127.0 127.8 128.6 129.4	131.7 132.6 133.4 134.2	136.5 137.3 138.1 139.0	145.9 146.8 147.7 148.6	150.6 151.5 152.4 153.4	155.3 156.2 157.2 158.1	160.0 161.0 162.0 162.9	164.7 165.7 166.7 167.7	41 42 43 44 45
6.8 7.3 7.8 8.3 8.3	91.6 92.2 92.7 93.2 93.8	101.2 101.8 102.5 103.1 103.7	106.1 106.7 107.3 108.0 108.6	110.9 111.6 112.2 112.9 113.6	115.7 116.4 117.1 117.8 118.5	120.5 121.2 122.0 122.7 123.4	125.3 126.1 126.8 127.6 128.4	130.2 131.0 131.7 132.5 133.3	135.8 136.6 137.4 138.2	139.8 140.6 141.5 142.3 143.2	149.4 150.4 151.2 152.1 153.0	154.3 155.2 156.1 157.1 158.0	159.1 160.0 161.0 162.0 162.9	163.9 164.9 165.9 166.9 167.9	168.7 169.8 170.8 171.8 172.8	46 47 48 49 50
9.4 9.9 90.4 90.9 91.5	96.0	JW6.7	111.8	110.9	122.0	127.0	132.1	137,2	142.0	127.4	101.0	102.0	107.7	114.0	173.8 174:8 175.9 176.9 177.9	51 52 53 54 55
02.0 02.5 03.0 03.6	_		_		-		-	_	-			-			178.9 179.9 180.9 181.9	56 57 58 59
797	1896	2096	2196	2296	2395	2495	2595	2695	2795	2894	3094	3194	3294	3393	3493	Horz. Dist.

Table III. $\frac{}{3^{\circ}}$ (Continued)

								3-								
	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1100	1200	1300	1400	1500	1600	1700
0 1 2 3 4 5	5.26 5.29 5.31 5.34	10.46 10.51 10.57 10.63 10.68 10.74	15.77 15.85 15.94 16.03	20.9 21.0 21.1 21.3 21.4 21.5	26.1 26.3 26.4 26.6 26.7 26.9	31.4 31.5 31.7 31.9 32.0 32.2	36.6 36.8 37.0 37.2 37.4 37.6	41.8 42.0 42.3 42.5 42.7 43.0	47.0 47.3 47.6 47.8 48.1 48.3	57.5 57.8 58.1 58.4 58.7 59.1	62.7 63.1 63.4 63.8 64.1 64.4	67.9 68.3 68.7 69.1 69.4 69.8	73.2 73.6 74.0 74.4 74.8 75.2	78.4 78.8 79.3 79.7 80.1 80.6	83.6 84.1 84.6 85.0 85.5 85.5	
6 7 8 9 10	5.43 5.46 5.49	10.80 10.86 10.92 10.97 11.03	16.29 16.37 16.46	21.6 21.7 21.8 21.9 22.1	27.0 27.1 27.3 27.4 27.6	32.4 32.6 32.7 32.9 33.1	37.8 38.0 38.2 38.4 38.6	43.2 43.4 43.7 43.9 44.1	48.6 48.9 49.1 49.4 49.6	59.4 59.7 60.0 60.4 60.7	64.8 65.1 65.5 65.8 66.2	70.2 70.6 71.0 71.3 71.7	75.6 76.0 76.4 76.8 77.2	81.0 81.4 81.9 82.3 82.7	86.4 86.9 87.3 87.8 88.2	91 92 92 93 93
11 12 13 14 15	5.58 5.60 5.63	11.10 11.15 11.20 11.26 11.32	16.72 16.81 16.89	22.2 22.3 22.4 22.5 22.6	27.7 27.9 28.0 28.2 28.3	33.3 33.4 33.6 33.8 34.0	38.8 39.0 39.2 39.4 39.6	44.4 44.6 44.8 45.0 45.3	49.9 50.2 50.4 50.7 50.9	61.0 61.3 61.6 61.9 62.3	66.5 66.9 67.2 67.6 67.9	72.1 72.5 72.8 73.2 73.6	77.6 78.0 78.4 78.8 79.2	83.2 83.6 84.0 84.5 84.9	88.7 89.2 89.6 90.1 90.6	94 94 95 95 96
16 17 18 19 20	5.72 5.75 5.77	11.38 11.44 11.49 11.55 11.61	17.15 17.24 17.33	22.8 22.9 23.0 23.1 23.2	28.4 28.6 28.7 28.9 29.0	34.3 34.5 34.7 34.8	39.8 40.0 40.2 40.4 40.6	45.5 45.7 46.0 46.2 46.4	51.2 51.5 51.7 52.0 52.2	62.6 62.9 63.2 63.5 63.8	68.3 68.6 69.0 69.3 69.6	74.0 74.3 74.7 75.1 75.5	79.6 80.0 80.5 80.9 81.3	85.3 85.8 86.2 86.6 87.1	91.0 91.5 92.0 92.4 92.9	96. 97. 97. 98. 98.
21 22 23 24 25	5.89	11.67 11.72 11.78 11.84 11.90	17.76	23.3 23.4 23.6 23.7 23.8	29.2 29.3 29.5 29.6 29.7	35.0 35.2 35.3 35.5 35.7	40.8 41.0 41.2 41.4 41.6	46.7 46.9 47.1 47.4 47.6	52.5 52.8 53.0 53.3 53.5	64.2 64.5 64.8 65:1 65.4	70.0 70.4 70.7 71.0 71.4	75.8 76.2 76.6 77.0 77.3	81.7 82.1 82.5 82.9 83.3	87.5 87.9 88.4 88.8 89.2	93.3 93.8 94.3 94.7 95.2	99 99 100 100 101
26 27 28 29 30	6.01 6.04 6.06	11.96 12.01 12.07 12.13 12.19	18.02 18.11 18.19	23.9 24.0 24.1 24.3 24.4	29.9 30.0 30.2 30.3 30.5	35.9 36.0 36.2 36.4 36.6	41.8 42.0 42.2 42.4 42.7	47.8 48.1 48.3 48.5 48.7	53.8 54.1 54.3 54.6 54.8	65.8 66.1 66.4 66.7 67.0	71.7 72.1 72.4 72.8 73.1	77.7 78.1 78.5 78.8 79.2	83.7 '84.1 84.5 84.9 85.3	89.7 90.1 90.5 91.0 91.4	95.6 96.1 96.6 97.0 97.5	102 103
31 32 33 34 35	6.15 6.18 6.21	12.24 12.30 12.36 12.42 12.48	18.45 18.54 18.63	24.5 24.6 24.7 24.8 25.0	30.6 30.8 30.9 31.0 31.2	36.7 36.9 37.1 37.2 37.4	42.9 43.1 43.3 43.5 43.7	49.0 49.2 49.4 49.7 49.9	55.1 55.4 55.6 55.9 56.1	67.3 67.7 68.0 68.3 68.6	73.5 73.8 74.2 74.5 74.9	79.6 80.0 80.3 80.7 81.1	85.7 86.1 86.5 86.9 87.3	91.8 92.3 92.7 93.1 93.6	98.0 98.4 98.9 99.3 99.8	104 105 105
36 37 38 39 40	6.30 6.32 6.35	12.59 12.65 12.71	18.80 18.89 18.97 19.06 19.15	25.1 25.2 25.3 25.4 25.5	31.3 31.5 31.6 31.8 31.9	37.6 37.8 37.9 38.1 38.3	43.9 44.1 44.3 44.5 44.7	50.1 50.4 50.6 50.8 51.1	56.4 56.7 56.9 57.2 57.4	68.9 69.2 69.6 69.9 70.2	75.2 75.5 75.9 76.2 76.6	81.5 81.8 82.2 82.6 83.0	87.7 88.1 88.5 88.9 89.4	94.4	100.3 100.7 101.2 101.6 102.1	107 107 108
41 42 43 44 45	6.44 6.47 6.50	12.94 13.00	19.23 19.32 19.41 19.49 19.58	25.6 25.8 25.9 26.0 26.1	32.1 32.2 32.3 32.5 32.6	38.5 38.6 38.8 39.0 39.2	44.9 45.1 45.3 45.5 45.7	51.3 51.5 51.7 52.0 52.2	57.7 58.0 58.2 58.5 58.7	70.5 70.8 71.1 71.5 71.8	76.9 77.3 77.6 78.0 78.3	83.3 83.7 84.1 84.5 84.8	89.7 90.2 90.6 91.0 91.4	96.6 97.0 97.5	102.6 103.0 103.5 104.0 104.4	109 110 110
46 47 48 49 50	6.59 6.61 6.64	13.11 13.17 13.23 13.28 13.34	19.75 19.84 19.92	26.2 26.3 26.4 26.6 26.7	32.8 32.9 33.1 33.2 33.4	39.3 39.5 39.7 39.8 40.0	45.9 46.1 46.3 46.5 46.7	52.4 52.7 52.9 53.1 53.4	59.0 59.3 59.5 59.8 60.0	72.1 72.4 72.7 73.1 73.4	78.7 79.0 79.4 79.7 80.0	85.2 85.6 86.0 86.3 86.7	91.8 92.2 92.6 93.0 93.4	98.3 98.8 99.2 99.6 100.1	104.9 105.3 105.8 106.3 106.7	111 112 112
51 52 53 54 55	6.76	13.46 13.51 13.57	20.10 20.18 20.27 20.36 20.44	26.8 26.9 27.0 27.1 27.3	33.5 33.6 33.8 33.9 34.1	40.2 40.4 40.5 40.7 40.9	46.9 47.1 47.3 47.5 47.7	53.6 53.8 54.1 54.3 54.5	60.3 60.6 60.8 61.1 61.3	73.7 74.0 74.3 74.6 75.0	80.4 80.7 81.1 81.4 81.8	87.1 87.5 87.8 88.2 88.6	94.2 94.6 95.0	100.5 100.0 101.4 101.8 102.2	107.6 108.1 108.6	114 114 115
56 57 58 59	6.85 6.88 6.90 6.93		20.70	27.4 27.5 27.6 27.7	34.2 34.4 34.5 34.6	41.1 41.2 41.4 41.6	48.3	54.7 55.0 55.2 55.4	61.6 61.8 62.1 62.4	75.3 75.6 75.9 76.2	82.1 82.5 82.8 83.2	89.0 89.3 89.7 90.1	96.2 96.6	102.6 103.1 103.5 104.0	109.9 110.4	116 117
Horz. Dist.	99.63	199.3	298.9	398.5	498.2	598	697	797	897	1096	1196	1295	1395	1494	1594	169

Table III.—(Continued)

								3°								
1800	1900	2100	2200	2300	2400	2500	2600	2700	2800	2900	3100	3200	3300	3400	3500	
95.6 96.2 96.7	100.4 100.9 101.5 102.0	111.6 112.2 112.8	116.9 117.5 118.2	121.5 122.2 122.9 123.5	127.5 128.2 128.9	132.8 133.6 134.3	138.1 138.9 139.6	143.4 144.2 145.0	148.8 149.6 150.4	154.1 154.9 155.8	164.7 165.6 166.5	170.0 170.9 171.9	175.3 176.3 177.2	180.6 181.6 182.6	186.0 187.0 188.0	0 1 2 3 4 5
97.2 97.7 98.2 98.8 99.3	102.6 103.2 103.7 104.2 104.9	113.4 114.0 114.6 115.2 115.8	118.8 119.4 120.1 120.7 121.3	124.2 124.9 125.5 126.2 126.9	129.6 130.3 131.0 131.7 132.4	135.0 135.7 136.4 137.2 137.9	140.4 141.2 141.9 142.6 143.4	145.8 146.6 147.4 148.1 148.9	151.2 152.0 152.8 153.6 154.4	156.6 157.4 158.3 159.1 159.9	167.4 168.3 169.2 170.1 171.0	172.8 173.7 174.7 175.6 176.5	178.2 179.2 180.1 181.0 182.0	183.6 184.6 185.6 186.5 187.5	189.0 190.0 191.0 192.0 193.0	6 7 8 9
99.8 100.3 100.8 101.4 101.9	105.3 105.9 106.4 107.0 107.5	116.4 117.0 117.6 118.3 118.9	122.0 122.6 123.3 123.9 124.5	127.5 128.2 128.9 129.5 130.2	133.1 133.8 134.5 135.2 135.8	138.6 139.3 140.1 140.8 141.5	144.2 144.9 145.7 146.4 147.2	149.7 150.5 151.3 152.0 152.8	155.2 156.1 156.9 157.7 158.6	160.8 161.6 162.5 163.3 164.1	171.9 172.8 173.7 174.6 175.5	177.4 178.4 179.3 180.2 181.1	183.0 183.9 184.9 185.8 186.8	188.5 189.5 190.5 191.5 192.4	194.1 195.1 196.1 197.1 198.1	11 12 13 14 15
102.4	108.1 108.6 109.2 109.7 110.3	119.5	125.2	130.8	136.5	142.2	147.9	153.6	159.3	165.0	176.4	182.0	187.7	193.4	199.1	16 17 18 19 20
105.0	110.8 111.4 111.9 112.5 113.0	122.5	128.3	134.2	140.0	145.8	151.7	157.5 158 3	163.3	169.2	180.8	186.7	192.5	198.3	204.2	21 22 23 24 25
107.6 108.1 108.6	113.6 114.1 114.7 115.2 115.8	125.5 126.1 126.7	131.5 132.2 132.8	137.5 138.2 138.8 139.5	143.5 144.2 144.8 145.5	149.4 150.2 150.9 151.6	155.4 156.2 156.9 157.7	161.4 162.2 163.0 163.7	167.4 168.2 169.0	173.4 174.2 175.0 175.9	185.3 186.2 187.1	191.3 192.2 193.1	197.3 198.2 199.2 200.1	203.3 204.2 205.2 206.2	209.2 210.2 211.2 212.3	26 27 28 29 30
110.2 110.7 111.2 111.8 112.3	116.3 116.9 117.4 118.0 118.5	128.6 129.2 129.8 130.4 131.0	134.7 135.3 136.0 136.6	140.8 141.5 142.1 142.8 143.5	146.9 147.6 148.3 149.0 149.7	153.1 153.8 154.5 155.2 156.0	159.2 159.9 160.7 161.4 162.2	165.3 166.1 166.9 167.6 168.4	171.4 172.2 173.0 173.8 174.7	177.6 178.4 179.2 180.1 180.9	189.8 190.7 191.6 192.5 193.4	195.9 196.8 197.8 198.7	202.0 203.0 203.9 204.9 205.8	208.2 209.1 210.1 211.1 212.1	214.3 215.3 216.3 217.3 218.3	31 32 33 34 35
															219.3 220.3 221.4 222.4 223.4	36 . 37 38 39 40
115.4	121.8	134.6	141.0	147.4	153.9	160.3	166.7	173.1	179.5	185.9	198.7	205.1	211.6	218.0	224,4	41 42 43 44 45
118.0	124.5	137.7	144.2	150.8	157.3	163.9	170.4	177.0	183.5	190.1	203.2	209.8	216.3	222.9	229.4 230.4 231.5 232.5 233.5	46 47 48 49 50
120.6 121.1 121.6 122.1	127.3 127.8 128.4 128.9	140.3 141.3 141.9	7 147.4 3 148.6 9 148.6 5 149.3	154.1 154.7 155.4 156.1	160.8 161.8 162.3 162.3	167.5 168.2 168.9	174.9 174.9 175.7	180.9 181.7 182.4 183.2	187.6 188.4 189.3 190.0	194.3 195.1 195.9 196.8	207.1 208.0 209.1 3 210.4	7 214.4 3 215.5 5 216.5 4 217.	221.1 222.0 223.0 1 223.9	227.8 228.8 229.7 230.7	234.5 235.5 236.5 237.5 238.5	51 52 53 54 55
123.2 123.2	2 130.0 7 130.6 2 131 1	143. 144.	7 150.6 3 151.5	157.4 158.1	164.5 164.5	171.1 171.8	177.9 178.7	184.8 185.8 186.3	191.6 192.4 193.5	198.5 199.3 200.1	212. 3 213. 1 213.	219.0 219.0 9 220.1	225.8 226.8 227.3	232.7 233.6 234.6	239.5 240.5 241.5 242.6	56 57 58 59
1793	1893	2092	2192	2291	2391	2491	2590	2690	2790	2889	3088	3188	3288	3387	3487	Horz. Dist.

TABLE III.—(Continued)

								4°								
	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1100	1200	1300	1400	1500	1600	1700
0 1 2 3 4 5	6.99 7.02 7.05 7.08	14.03 14.09 14.15	20.87 20.96 21.05 21.14 21.22 21.31	27.8 28.0 28.1 28.2 28.3 28.4	34.8 34.9 35.1 35.2 35.4 35.5	41.8 41.9 42.1 42.3 42.4 42.6	48.7 48.9 49.1 49.3 49.5 49.7	55.7 55.9 56.1 56.4 56.6 56.8	62.6 62.9 63.1 63.4 63.7 63.9	76.5 76.9 77.2 77.5 77.8 78.1	83.5 83.8 84.2 84.5 84.9 85.2	90.5 90.8 91.2 91.6 92.0 92.3	97.8 98.2 98.6 99.0	104.4 104.8 105.2 105.7 106.1 106.5	111.8 112.3 112.7 113.2	119.8 119.8 120.3
6 7 8 9 10	7. 16 7. 19 7. 22	14.32 14.38 14.44	21.39 21.48 21.57 21.65 21.74	28.5 28.6 28.8 28.9 29.0	35.7 35.8 35.9 36.1 36.2	42.8 43.0 43.1 43.3 43.5	49.9 50.1 50.3 50.5 50.7	57.1 57.3 57.5 57.7 58.0	64.2 64.4 64.7 65.0 65.2	78.4 78.8 79.1 79.4 79.7	85.6 85.9 86.3 86.6 87.0	93.5 93.8	100.2 100.6 101.0	107.0 107.4 107.8 108.3 108.7	114.6 115.0 115.5	122.2 122.7
11 12 13 14 15	7.30 7.33 7.36	14.61 14.67	21.83 21.91 22.00 22.08 22.17	29.3	36.4 36.5 36.7 36.8 37.0	43.7 43.8 44.0 44.2 44.3	50.9 51.1 51.3 51.5 51.7	58.2 58.4 58.7 58.9 59.1	65.5 65.7 66.0 66.3 66.5	80.0 80.3 80.7 81.0 81.3	87.3 87.6 88.0 88.3 88.7	95.0 95.3 95.7	102.3 102.7 103.1	109.1 109.6 110.0 110.4 110.9	116.9 117.3 117.8	124.2 124.7 125.1
16 17 18 19 20	7.45 7.48 7.51	14.95 15.01	22.26 22.34 23.43 22.52 22.60	29.7 29.8 29.9 30.0 30.1	37.1 37.2 37.4 37.5 37.7	44.5 44.7 44.9 45.0 45.2	51.9 52.1 52.3 52.5 52.7	59.4 59.6 59.8 60.0 60.3	66.8 67.0 67.3 67.5 67.8	81.6 81.9 82.2 82.6 82.9	89.0 89.4 89.7 90.1 90.4	97.2 97.6	104.7 105.1	111.3 111.7 112.2 112.6 113.0	119.6 120.1	127.1 127.6
21 22 23 24 25	7.62	$15.24 \\ 15.30$	22.69 22.78 22.86 22.95 23.03	30.3 30.4 30.5 30.6 30.7	37.8 38.0 38.1 38.2 38.4	45.4 45.6 45.7 45.9 46.1	52.9 53.1 53.3 53.5 53.7	60.5 60.7 61.0 61.2 61.4	68.1 68.3 68.6 68.8 69.1	83.2 83.5 83.8 84.1 84.5	90.8 91.1 91.4 91.8 92.1	98.3 98.7 99.1 99.4 99.8	105.9 106.3 106.7 107.1 107.5	113.4 113.9 114.3 114.7 115.2	121.0 121.5 121.9 122.4 122.8	128.6 129.1 129.5 130.0 130.5
26 27 28 29 30	7.76	15.41 15.47 15.53 15.59 15.64	23.12 23.21 23.29 23.38 23.46	30.8 30.9 31.1 31.2 31.3	38.5 38.7 38.8 39.0 39.1	46.2 46.4 46.6 46.8 46.9	53.9 54.1 54.4 54.6 54.8	61.7 61.9 62.1 62.3 62.6	69.4 69.6 69.9 70.1 70.4	84.8 85.1 85.4 85.7 86.0	92.8 93.2 93.5	100.6 100.9 101.3	108.3 108.7 109.1	115.6 116.0 116.5 116.9 117.3	123.8 124.2 124.7	132.
31 32 33 34 35	7.88 7.91 7.94	15.82 15.87	23.55 23.64 23.72 23.81 23.90	31.4 31.5 31.6 31.7 31.9	39.3 39.4 39.5 39.7 39.8	47.1 47.3 47.4 47.6 47.8	55.0 55.2 55.4 55.6 55.8	62.8 63.0 63.3 63.5 63.7	70.7 70.9 71.2 71.4 71.7	86.4 86.7 87.0 87.3 87.6	94.5 94.9 95.2	102.4 102.8 103.2	110.3 110.7 111.1	117.8 118.2 118.6 119.0 119.5	126.1 126.5 127.0	133.9 134.4 134.9
36 37 38 39 40	8.02 8.05 8.08	16.05 16.10	23.98 24.07 24.15 24.24 24.33	32.0 32.1 32.2 32.3 32.4	40.0 40.1 40.3 40.4 40.5	48.0 48.1 48.3 48.5 48.7	56.0 56.2 56.4 56.6 56.8	64.0 64.2 64.4 64.6 64.9	71.9 72.2 72.5 72.7 73.0	87.9 88.2 88.6 88.9 89.2	96.3 96.6 97.0	104.3 104.7 105.0	112.3 112.7 113.1	119.9 120.3 120.8 121.2 121.6	128.4 128.8 129.3	137.4
41 42 43 44 45	8.17 8.20 8.22	16.39 16.45	24.50 24.58	32.6 32.7 32.8 32.9 33.0	40.7 40.8 41.0 41.1 41.3	48.8 49.0 49.2 49.3 49.5	57.0 57.2 57.4 57.6 57.8	65.1 65.3 65.6 65.8 66.0	73.2 73.5 73.8 74.0 74.3	89.5 89.8 90.1 90.5 90.8	98.0 98.3 98.7	106.2 106.5 106.9	114.3 114.7 115.1	122.1 122.5 122.9 123.4 123.8	130.7 131.1 131.6	138.8 139.3 139.8
46 47 48 49 50	8.31 8.34 8.37	16.68 16.73	24.84 24.93 25.02 25.10 25.19	33.1 33.2 33.4 33.5 33.6	41.4 41.6 41.7 41.8 42.0	49.7 49.9 50.0 50.2 50.4	58.0 58.2 58.4 58.6 58.8	66.2 66.5 66.7 66.9 67.2	74.5 74.8 75.0 75.3 75.6	9Z.O	99.4 99.7 100.1 100.4 100.8	108.8	1117.1	125.5	133.9	142.2
51 52 53 54 55	8.45 8.48 8.51	16.96 17.02	25.27 25.36 25.45 25.53 25.62	33.7 35.8 33.9 34.0 34.2	42.1 42.3 42.4 42.6 42.7	50.5 50.7 50.9 51.1 51.2	59.0 59.2 59.4 59.6 59.8	67.4 67.6 67.9 68.1 68.3	75.8 76.1 76.3 76.6 76.9	93.0 93.3 93.6	101.1 101.4 101.8 102.1 102.5	109.9 110.3 110.6	118.3 118.7 119.1	126.8 127.2 127.7	135.2 135.7 136.2	143.7 144.2 144.7
56 57 58 59	8.60	17.14 17.19 17.26 17.31	25.70 25.79 25.87 25.96	34.3 34.4 34.5 34.6	42.8 43.0 43.1 43.3	51.4 51.6 51.8 51.9	60.0 60.2 60.4 60.6	68.5 68.8 69.0 69.2	77.1 77.4 77.6 77.9	94.2 94.6 94.9	102.8 103.2 103.5	111.4 111.8 112.1	120.0 120.4 120.8	128.5 128.9 129.4	137.1 137.5 138.0	145.7 146.1 146.6
Horz. Dist.	99.38	198.8	298.1	397.5	496.9	596	696	795	894	1093	1193	1292	1391	1491	1590	1689

TABLE III.—(Continued)

						_		4°								
1800	1900	2100	2200	2300	2400	2500	2600	2700	2800	2900	3100	3200	3300	3400	3500	
126.3 126.8 127.3	132.2 132.8 133.3 133.9 134.4 134.9	147.3 147.9 148.6	154.4 155.0 155.6	161.4 162.0 162.7	168.4 169.1 169.8	175.4 176.1 176.8	182.4 183.2 183.9	189.4 190.2 191.0	196.5 197.3 198.1	203.5 204.3 205.1	217.5 218.4 219.3	224.5 225.4 226.4	231.5 232.5 233.4	238.6 239.5 240.5	245.6 246.6 247.6	0 1 2 3 4 5
129.9	135.5 136.0 136.6 137.1 137.7	121.0	199.9	100.0	1/3.2	180.4	187.7	194.9	202.1	209.3	223.8	231.0	238.2	245.4	252.61	6 7 8 9
131.5 132.0 132.5 133.5	138.2 138.8 139.3 139.9 140.4	152.8 153.4 154.0 154.6 155.2	160.1 160.7 161.3 162.0 162.6	167.3 168.0 168.7 169.3 170.0	174.6 175.3 176.0 176.7 177.4	181.9 182.6 183.3 184.0 184.7	189.2 189.9 190.7 191.4 192.2	196.4 197.2 198.0 198.8 199.5	203.7 204.5 205.3 206.1 206.9	211.0 211.8 212.7 213.5 214.3	225.5 226.4 227.3 228.2 229.1	232.8 233.7 234.7 235.6 236.5	240.1 241.0 242.9 242.9 243.9	247.4 248.3 249.3 250.3 251.3	254.6 255.6 256.6 257.7 258.7	11 12 13 14 15
133.5 134.1 134.6 135.1 135.6	141.0 141.5 142.1 142.6 143.2	155.8 156.4 157.0 157.6 158.2	163.2 163.9 164.5 165.1 165.8	170.6 171.3 172.9 172.6 173.3	178.1 178.8 179.4 180.1 180.8	185.5 186.2 186.9 187.6 188.4	192.9 193.6 194.4 195.1 195.9	200.3 201.1 201.9 202.6 203.4	207.7 208.5 209.3 210.2 211.0	215.2 216.0 216.8 217.7 218.5	230.0 230.9 231.8 232.7 233.6	237.4 238.3 239.3 240.2 241.1	244.8 245.8 246.7 247.7 248.6	252.2 253.2 254.2 255.2 256.2	259.7 260.7 261.7 262.7 263.7	16 17 18 19 20
136.1 136.7 137.2 137.7 138.2	143.7 144.2 144.8 145.3 145.9	158.8 159.4 160.0 160.6 161.2	166.4 167.0 167.6 168.3 168.9	173.9 174.6 175.3 175.9 176.6	181.5 182.2 182.9 183.6 184.3	189.1 189.8 190.5 191.2 192.0	196.6 197.4 198.1 198.9 199.6	204.2 205.0 205.8 206.5 207.3	211.8 212.6 213.4 214.2 215.1	219.3 220.2 221.0 221.8 222.7	234.5 235.4 236.2 237.1 238.0	242.0 242.9 243.9 244.8 245.7	249.6 250.5 251.5 252.4 253.4	257.1 258.1 259.1 260.1 261.1	264.7 265.7 266.7 267.7 268.7	21 22 23 24 25
138.7 139.2 139.8 140.3 140.8	146.4 147.0 147.5 148.1 148.6	161.8 162.4 163.1 163.7 164.3	169.6 170.2 170.8 171.4 172.1	177.3 177.9 178.6 179.2 179.9	185.0 185.7 186.3 187.0 187.7	192.7 193.4 194.1 194.8 195.5	200.4 201.1 201.9 202.6 203.4	208.1 208.9 209.6 210.4 211.2	215.8 216.6 217.4 218.2 219.0	223.5 224.3 225.2 226.0 226.8	238.9 239.8 240.7 241.6 242.5	246.6 247.5 248.5 249.4 250.3	254.3 255.3 256.2 257.2 258.1	262.0 263.0 264.0 265.0 265.9	269.7 270.7 271.8 272.8 273.8	26 27 28 29 30
141.3 141.8 142.3 142.9	149.2 149.7 150.3 150.8 151.3	164.9 165.5 166.1 166.7	172.7 173.3 174.0	180.6 181.2 181.9 182.5	188.4 189.1 189.8 190.5	196.3 197.0 197.7 198.4	204.1 204.9 205.6 206.3	212.0 212.7 213.5 214.3	219.8 220.6 221.4 222.2	227.7 228.5 229.3 230.2	243.4 244.2 245.1 246.0	251.2 252.1 253.1 254.0	259.1 260.0 261.0 261.9	266.9 267.9 268.9 269.8	274.8 275.8 276.8 277.8	31 32 33 34 35
143.9 144.4 144.9 145.4 145.9	151.9 152.4 153.0 153.5 154.1	167.9 168.5 169.1 169.7 170.3	175.9 176.5 177.1 177.8 178.4	183.9 184.5 185.2 185.8 186.5	191.9 192.6 193.2 193.9 194.6	199.8 200.6 201.3 202.0 202.7	207.8 208.6 209.3 210.1 210.8	215.8 216.6 217.4 218.2 218.9	223.8 224.6 225.4 226.2 227.1	231.8 232.7 233.5 234.3 235.2	247.8 248.7 249.6 250.5 251.4	255.8 256.7 257.6 258.6 259.5	263.8 264.7 265.7 266.6 267.6	271.8 272.8 273.8 274.7 275.7	279.8 280.8 281.8 282.8 283.8	86 37 38 39 40
146.5 147.0 147.5 148.0	154.6 155.2 155.7 156.2 156.8	170.9 171.5 172.1 172.7	179.0 179.7 180.3 180.9	187.2 187.8 188.5 189.1	195.3 196.0 196.7 197.4	203.4 204.2 204.9 205.6	211.6 212.3 213.1 213.8	219.7 220.5 221.3 222.0	227.9 228.7 229.5 230.3	236.0 236.8 237.7 238.5	252.3 253.2 254.0 254.9	260.4 261.3 262.2 263.2	268.5 269.5 270.4 271.4	276.7 277.7 278.6 279.6	284.8 285.8 286.8 287.8	41 42 43 44 45
149.6 150.1 150.6 151.1	157.3 157.9 158.4 159.0 159.5	174.5 175.1 175.7 176.3	182.8 183.4 184.1 184.7	191.1 191.8 192.4 193.1	199.4 200.1 200.8 201.5	207.8 208.5 209.2 209.9	216.1 216.8 217.5 218.3	224.4 225.1 225.9 226.7	232.7 233.5 234.3 235.1	241.0 241.8 242.6 243.5	257.6 258.5 259.4 260.3	265.9 266.8 267.7 268.7	274.2 275.2 276.1 277.1	282.5 283.5 284.5 285.5	290.8 291.8 292.8 293.9	46 47 48 49 50
151.6 152.2 152.7 153.2 153.7	160.1 160.6 161.2 161.7 162.2	176.9 177.5 178.1 178.7 179.3	185.3 186.0 186.6 187.2 187.9	193.8 194.4 195.1 195.7 196.4	202.2 202.9 203.6 204.2 204.9	210.6 211.3 212.0 212.8 213.5	219.0 219.8 220.5 221.3 222.0	227.5 228.2 229.0 229.8 230.6	235.9 236.7 237.5 238.3 239.1	244.3 245.1 246.0 246.8 247.6	261.2 262.0 262.9 263.8 264.7	269.6 270.5 271.4 272.3 273.2	278.0 278.9 279.9 280.8 281.8	286.4 287.4 288.4 289.4 290.3	294.9 295.9 296.9 297.9 298.9	51 52 53 54 55
154.2 154.7	162.8 163.3 163.9 164.4	179.9 180.5	188.5 189.1	197.1 197.7	205.6 206.3	214.2 214.9	222.8 223.5	231.3 232.1	239.9 240.7	248.5 249.3	265.6 266.5	274.2 275.1	282.7 283.7	291.3 292.3	299.9 300.9	56 57 58 59
1789	1888	2087	2186	2286	2385	2484	2584	2683	2783	2882	3081	3180	3279	3379	3478	Horz. Dist.

TABLE III.—(Continued)

								5°								
	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1100	1200	1300	1400	1500	1600	1700
0 1 2 3 4 5	8.71 8.74 8.77 8.80	17.42 17.48 17.54 17.59	26.05 26.13 26.22 26.31 26.39 26.48	34.7 34.8 35.0 35.1 35.2 35.3	43.4 43.6 43.7 43.8 44.0 44.1	52.1 52.3 52.4 52.6 52.8 53.0	60.8 61.0 61.2 61.4 61.6 61.8	69.5 69.7 69.9 70.1 70.4 70.6	78.1 78.4 78.7 78.9 79.2 79.4	95.8 96.1 96.4	104.5 104.9 105.2	113.2 113.6 114.0	122.0 122.4 122.8	130.7 131.1 131.5	138.9 139.4 139.8 140.3 140.8 141.2	148.1 148.6 149 1
6 7 8 9 10	8.88 8.91 8.94	17.77 17.82 17.88	26.56 26.65 26.73 26.82 26.90	35.4 35.5 35.6 35.8 35.9	44.3 44.4 44.5 44.7 44.8	53.1 53.3 53.5 53.6 53.8	62.0 62.2 62.4 62.6 62.8	70.8 71.1 71.3 71.5 71.8	79.7 79.9 80.2 80.5 80.7	98.0 98.3 98.7	106.6 106.9 107.3 107.6	115.5 115.8 116.2 116.6	124.4 124.8 125.2 125.6	133.2 133.7 134.1 134.5	141.7 142.1 142.6 143.0 143.5	151.0 151.5 152.0 152.5
11 12 13 14 15	9.03 9.06 9.08	18.05 18.11 18.17	26.99 27.08 27.16 27.25 27.33	36.0 36.1 36.2 36.3 36.4	44.9 45.1 45.3 45.4 45.6	54.0 54.2 54.3 54.5 54.7	63.0 63.2 63.4 63.6 63.8	72.0 72.2 72.4 72.7 72.9	81.0 81.2 81.5 81.7 82.0	99.0 99.3 99.6 99.9 100.2	108.0 108.3 108.7 109.0 109.3	117.0 117.3 117.7 118.1 118.5	126.0 126.4 126.8 127.2 127.6	135.0 135.4 135.8 136.2 136.7	144.0 144.4 144.9 145.3 145.8	153.0 153.4 153.9 154.4 154.9
18 17 18 19 20	9.17 9.20 9.23	18.34 18.39 18.45	27.42 27.51 27.59 27.68 27.76	36.6 36.7 36.8 36.9 37.0	45.7 45.8 46.0 46.1 46.3	54.8 55.0 55.2 55.3 55.5	64.0 64.2 64.4 64.6 64.8	73.1 73.4 73.6 73.8 74.0	82.3 82.5 82.8 83.0 83.3	100.5 100.9 101.1 101.5 101.8	109.7 110.0 110.4 110.7 111.0	118.8 119.2 119.6 119.9 120.3	127.9 128.4 128.8 129.2 129.6	137.1 137.5 138.0 138.4 138.8	146.2 146.7 147.2 147.6 148.1	155.4 155.9 156.4 156.8 157.3
21 22 23 24 25	9.31 9.34 9.37	18.62 18.68 18.74	27.85 27.94 28.02 28.11 28.19	37.1 37.2 37.4 37.5 37.6	46.4 46.6 46.7 46.8 47.0	55.7 55.9 56.0 56.2 56.4	65.0 65.2 65.4 65.6 65.8	74.3 74.5 74.7 75.0 75.2	83.6 83.8 84.1 84.3 84.6	102.1 102.4 102.7 103.1 103.4	111.4 111.7 112.1 112.4 112.8	120.7 121.1 121.4 121.8 122.2	130.0 130.4 130.8 131.2 131.6	139.3 139.7 140.1 140.5 141.0	148.5 149.0 149.4 149.9 150.4	157.8 158.3 158.8 159.3 159.8
26 27 28 29 30	9.46 9.48 9.51	18.91 18.97 19.02	28.28 28.37 28.45 28.54 28.62	37.7 37.8 37.9 38.0 38.2	47.1 47.3 47.4 47.6 47.7	56.5 56.7 56.9 57.1 57.2	66.0 66.2 66.4 66.6 66.8	75.4 75.6 75.9 76.1 76.3	84.8 85.1 85.4 85.6 85.9	103.7 104.0 104.3 104.6 104.9	113.1 113.5 113.8 114.1 114.5	122.5 122.9 123.3 123.7 124.0	132.0 132.4 132.8 133.2 133.6	141.4 141.9 142.3 142.7 143.1	150.9 151.3 151.7 152.2 152.6	160.2 160.7 161.2 161.7 162.3
31 32 33 34 35	9.60 9.63 9.65	19.25 19.31	28.71 28.79 28.88 28.96 29.05	38.3 38.4 38.5 38.6 38.7	47.8 48.0 48.1 48.3 48.4	57.4 57.6 57.8 57.9 58.1	67.0 67.2 67.4 67.6 67.8	76.6 76.8 77.0 77.2 77.5	86.1 86.4 86.6 86.9	105.3 105.6 105.9 106.2	114.8 115.2 115.5 115.9	124.4 124.8 125.1 125.5	134.0 134.4 134.8 135.2	143.6 144.0 144.4 144.8		162.7 163.2 163.6 164.1
36 37 38 39 40	9.74 9.77 9.80	19.54 19.60	29.13 29.22 29.31 29.39 29.48	38.8 39.0 39.1 39.2 39.3	48.6 48.7 48.9 49.0 49.2	58.3 58.5 58.6 58.8 59.0	68.0 68.2 68.4 68.6 68.8	77.7 77.9 78.2 78.4 78.6	87.4 87.7 87.9 88.2 88.5	106.8 107.1 107.5 107.8 108.1	116.5 116.9 117.2 117.6 118.0	126.2 126.6 127.0 127.4 127.7	136.0 136.4 136.8 137.2 137.6	145.7 146.1 146.5 147.0 147.4	155.4 155.8 156.3 156.8 157.2	165.1 165.6 166.1 166.6 167.0
41 42 43 44 45	9.94	19.88	29.56 29.65 29.73 29.82 29.90	39.4 39.5 39.7 39.8 39.9	49.3 49.4 49.6 49.7 49.8	59.2 59.3 59.5 59.6 59.8	69.0 69.2 69.4 69.6 69.8	78.8 79.1 79.3 79.5 79.8	88.7 89.0 89.2 89.5 89.7	108.4 108.7 109.0 109.3 109.7	118.3 118.6 118.9 119.3 119.6	128.1 128.5 128.8 129.2 129.6	138.0 138.4 138.8 139.2 139.6	147.8 148.2 148.7 149.1 149.5	157.7 158.1 158.6 159.0 159.5	167.5 168.0 168.5 169.0 169.5
46 47 48 49 50	10.00 10.02 10.05 10.08 10.11	20.05 20.11 20.16	30.08 30.16 30.25	40.0 40.1 40.2 40.3 40.4	50.0 50.1 50.3 50.4 50.6	60.0 60.2 60.3 60.5 60.7	70.0 70.2 70.4 70.6 70.8	80.0 80.2 80.4 80.7 80.9	00.0		100 0	120 0	140 0	150 0	160.0 160.4 160.9 161.3 161.8	100 0
51 52 53 54 55	10.14 10.17 10.20 10.22 10.25	20.34	30.42 30.50 30.59 30.68 30.76	40.6 40.7 40.8 40.9 41.0	50.7 50.8 51.0 51.1 51.3	60.8 61.0 61.2 61.4 61.5	71.0 71.2 71.4 71.6 71.8	81.1 81.3 81.6 81.8 82.0	91.3 91.5 91.8 92.0	111.5 111.9 112.2 112.5	121.7 122.0 122.4 122.7	131.8 132.2 132.6 132.9	142.0 142.4 142.8 143.2	152.1 152.5 152.9 153.4	162.2 162.7 163.1 163.6 164.1	172.4 172.9 173.3 173.8
57 58 59	10.28 10.31 10.34 10.37	20.63 20.58 20.74	30.93 31.02 31.10	41.1 41.2 41.4 41.5	51.4 51.6 51.7 51.8	61.7 61.9 62.0 62.2	72.0 72.2 72.4 72.6	82.2 82.5 82.7 82.9	92.8 93.0	$\frac{113.4}{113.7}$	123.7 124.1	133.6 134.0 134.4 134.8	144.3 144.8	154.6 155.1	164.5 165.0 165.4 165.9	175.3 175.8
Horz. Dist.	99.08	198.2	297.2	396.3	495.4	594	694	793	892	1090	1189	1288	1387	1486	1585	1684

TABLE III. -- (Continued)

								5°								
1800	1900	2100	2200	2300	2400	2500	2600	2700	2800	2900	3100	3200	3300	3400	3500	•
156.3	165.0	182.3	191.0	200.0	208.4	217.1	225.7	234.4	243.1	251.8	269.2	277.8	286.5	295.2	803.9	0
156.8	165.5	182.9	191.6	200.4	209.1	217.8	226.5	235.2	243.9	252.6	270.0	278.8	287.5	296.2	804.9	1
157.3	166.0	183.5	192.3	201.0	209.7	218.5	227.2	236.0	244.7	253.4	270.9	280.0	288.4	297.1	805.9	2
157.8	166.6	184.1	192.9	201.7	210.5	219.2	228.0	236.7	245.5	254.3	271.8	280.6	289.4	298.1	806.9	3
158.3	167.1	184.7	193.5	202.3	211.1	219.9	228.7	237.5	246.3	255.1	272.7	281.5	290.3	299.1	807.9	4
158.3	167.7	185.3	194.2	203.0	211.8	220.6	229.5	238.3	247.1	255.9	273.6	282.4	291.2	300.1	808.9	5
101.4	170.4	188.3	197.3	200.3	215.2	224.2	233.Z	242.1	201.1	200.1	2/8.0	287.0	292.2 293.1 294.1 295.1 295.9	304.9	13.9	6 7 8 9
162.0	171.0	188.9	197.9	206.9	215.9	224.9	233.9	242.9	251.9	260.9	278.9	287.9	298.9	305.9	314.9	11
162.5	171.5	189.5	198.6	207.6	216.6	225.6	234.7	243.7	252.7	261.7	279.8	288.8	297.9	306.9	315.9	12
163.0	172.0	190.1	199.2	208.3	217.3	226.4	235.4	244.5	253.5	262.6	280.7	289.7	298.8	307.9	316.9	13
163.5	172.6	190.7	199.8	208.9	218.0	227.1	236.2	245.2	254.3	263.4	281.6	290.7	299.7	308.8	317.9	14
164.0	172.6	191.4	200.5	209.6	218.7	227.8	236.9	246.0	255.1	264.2	282.5	291.6	300.7	309.8	318.9	15
164.5	173.7	192.0	201.1	210.2	219.4	228.5	237.7	246.8	255.9	265.1	283.4	292.5	301.6	310.8	319.9	16
165.0	174.2	192.5	201.7	210.9	220.1	229.2	238.4	247.6	256.7	265.9	284.2	293.4	302.6	311.7	320.9	17
165.6	174.8	193.1	202.3	211.5	220.7	229.9	239.1	248.3	257.6	266.7	285.1	294.3	303.5	312.7	321.9	18
166.1	175.3	193.7	203.0	212.2	221.4	230.7	239.9	249.1	258.3	267.6	286.0	295.2	304.5	313.7	322.9	19
166.6	175.8	194.3	203.6	212.8	222.1	231.4	240.6	249.9	259.1	268.4	286.9	296.1	305.4	314.6	323.9	20
167.1	176.4	195.0	204.2	213.5	222.8	222.1	241.4	250.7	259.9	269.2	287.8	297.0	306.4	315.6	324.9	21
167.6	176.9	195.6	204.9	214.2	223.5	232.8	242.1	251.4	260.7	270.0	288.7	298.0	307.3	316.6	325.9	22
168.1	177.5	196.2	205.5	214.8	224.2	233.5	242.9	252.2	261.5	270.9	289.6	298.9	308.2	317.6	326.9	23
168.6	178.0	196.7	206.1	215.5	224.9	234.2	243.6	253.0	262.3	271.7	290.4	299.8	309.2	318.5	327.9	24
169.2	178.6	197.3	206.7	216.1	225.5	234.9	244.3	253.7	263.1	272.6	291.3	300.7	310.1	319.5	328.9	25
169.7	179.1	197.9	207.4	216.8	226.2	235.6	245.1	254.5	263.9	273.4	292.2	301.6	311.1	320.5	329.9	26
170.2	179.7	198.6	208.0	217.5	226.9	236.4	245.8	255.3	264.7	274.2	293.1	302.6	312.0	321.5	330.9	27
170.7	180.2	199.2	208.6	218.1	227.6	237.1	246.6	256.1	265.5	275.0	294.0	303.5	313.0	322.4	331.9	28
171.2	180.7	199.7	209.3	218.8	228.3	237.8	247.3	256.8	266.3	275.8	294.9	304.4	313.9	323.4	332.9	29
171.7	181.3	200.3	209.9	219.4	229.0	238.5	248.0	257.6	267.1	276.7	295.8	305.3	314.8	324.4	333.9	30
172.2	181.8	200.9	210.5	220.1	229.7	239.2	248.8	258.4	267.9	277.5	296.6	306.2	315.8	325.4	334.9	31
172.8	182.4	201.5	211.1	220.7	230.3	239.9	249.5	259.1	268.7	278.3	297.5	307.1	316.7	326.3	335.9	32
173.3	182.9	202.1	211.8	221.4	231.0	240.6	250.3	259.9	269.5	279.2	298.4	308.0	317.7	327.3	336.9	33
173.8	183.4	202.7	212.4	222.1	231.7	241.4	251.0	260.7	270.3	280.0	299.3	308.9	318.6	328.3	337.9	34
174.3	184.0	203.8	213.0	222.7	232.4	242.1	251.8	261.4	271.1	280.8	300.2	309.9	319.6	329.2	338.9	35
174.8	184.5	203.9	213.7	223.4	233.1	242.8	252.5	262.2	271.9	281.6	301.1	310.8	320.5	330.2	339.9	36
175.3	185.1	204.5	214.3	224.0	233.8	243.5	253.3	263.0	272.7	282.5	302.0	311.7	321.4	331.2	340.9	37
175.8	185.6	205.1	214.9	224.7	234.5	244.2	254.0	263.8	273.5	283.3	302.8	312.6	322.4	332.1	341.9	38
176.4	186.2	205.7	215.5	225.3	235.1	244.9	254.7	264.5	274.3	284.1	303.7	313.5	323.3	333.1	342.9	39
176.9	186.7	206.3	216.2	226.0	235.8	245.6	255.5	265.3	275.1	285.0	304.6	314.4	324.3	334.1	343.9	40
177.4 177.9 178.4 178.9 179.4	187.2 187.8 188.3 188.9 189.4	206.9 207.5 208.1 208.7 209.3	216.8 217.4 218.0 218.7 218.7 219.3	226.7 227.3 227.9 228.6 229.3	236.5 237.2 237.9 238.6 239.2	246.4 247.1 247.8 248.5 249.2	256.2 257.0 257.7 258.4 259.2	266.6 266.8 267.6 268.4 269.1	275.9 276.7 277.5 278.3 279.1	285.8 286.6 287.4 288.3 289.1	305.5 306.4 307.3 308.1 309.0	315.3 316.2 317.2 318.1 319.0	325.2 326.1 327.1 328.0 329.0	335.1 336.0 337.0 338.0 338.9	344.9 345.9 346.9 347.9 348.9	41 42 43 44 45
179.9	189.9	209.9	219.6	229.9	239.9	249.9	259.9	269.9	279.9	289.9	309.9	319.9	329.9	339.9	349.9	46
180.5	190.5	210.8	220.6	230.6	240.6	250.6	260.7	270.7	280.7	290.3	310.8	320.8	330.9	340.9	350.9	47
181.0	191.0	211.9	221.5	231.2	241.3	251.4	261.4	271.8	281.5	291.6	311.3	321.3	7331.8	341.8	351.9	48
181.5	191.6	211.9	7 221.8	231.9	242.0	252.1	262.1	272.9	282.3	292.4	312.6	322.6	8332.7	342.8	352.9	49
182.0	192.0	212.4	4 222.4	232.6	242.7	252.8	262.9	273.0	283.1	293.3	313.4	323.6	8333.7	343.8	353.9	50
182.4 183.4 183.4 184.6	192.7 193.2 193.7 194.3 194.8	212.0 213.0 214.0 214.0 215.0	223.1 5 223.1 1 224.3 7 225.6 8 225.6	233.2 7 233.9 3 234.5 0 235.2 3 235.8	243.3 244.0 244.7 245.4 246.1	253.5 254.2 254.9 255.6 256.3	263.6 264.4 265.1 265.8 266.6	273.8 274.8 275.3 276.8	283.9 284.7 285.8 286.3 287.1	294.6 294.6 295. 296.4 297.4	314.3 315.3 7 316.3 5 317.4	324. 325. 326. 327. 328.	334.6 4 335.5 3 336.5 2 337.4 1 338.4	344.8 345.7 346.7 347.6 348.6	354.9 355.9 356.9 357.9 358.9	51 52 53 54 55
105		h					007 5	077	007 (1000	h10 '	7 200 /	0 339.3 9 349.3 8 341.3 7 342.1	040 A	250 8	56 57 58 59
1783	1882	2081	2180	2279	2378	2477	2576	2675	2774	2873	3071	3170	3270	3369	3468	

TABLE III.—(Continued)

							6	,								
	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1100	1200	1300	1400	1500	1600	1700
1 2 3 4	10.42 10.45	20.85 20.90 20.96 21.02	31.19 31.27 31.36 31.44 31.53 31.61	41.6 41.7 41.8 41.9 42.0 42.2	52.0 52.1 52.3 52.4 52.5 52.7	62.4 62.5 62.7 62.9 63.1 63.2	72.8 73.0 73.2 73.4 73.6 73.8	83.2 83.4 83.6 83.8 84.1 84.3	93.8 94.1 94.3 94.6	114.7 115.0 115.3 115.6	124.7 125.1 125.4 125.8 126.1 126.5	135.5 135.9 136.2 136.6	145.9 146.3 146.7 147.1	156.4 156.8 157.2 157.6	166.8 167.2 167.7 168.2	177.2 177.7 178.2 178.8
6 7 8 9	10.59 10.62	21.19 21.25 21.30	31.87 31.95	42.3 42.4 42.5 42.6 42.7	52.8 53.0 53.1 53.3 53.4	63.4 63.6 63.7 63.9 64.1	74.0 74.2 74.4 74.6 74.8	84.5 84.8 85.0 85.2 85.4	95.4 95.6 95.9	116.5 116.8 117.2	126.8 127.1 127.5 127.8 128.2	137.7 138.1 138.5	148.3 148.7 149.1	159.8	169.5 170.0 170.4	180.6 181.1
11 12 13 14 15	10.74	21.47 21.53 21.59	32.12 32.21 32.30 32.38 32.47	42.8 42.9 43.1 43.2 43.3	53.5 53.7 53.8 54.0 54.1	64.3 64.4 64.6 64.8 64.9	75.0 75.2 75.4 75.6 75.8	85.7 85.9 86.1 86.3 86.6	96.6 96.9 97.1	118.1 118.4 118.7	128.5 128.8 129.2 129.5 129.9	139.6 139.9 140.3	150.3 150.7 151.1	161.1 161.5 161.9	171.8 172.2 172.7	182.5 183.0 183.5
16 17 18 19 20	10.88 10.91 10.94	21.76 21.81 21.87	32.55 32.64 32.72 32.81 32.89	43.4 43.5 43.6 43.7 43.9	54.2 54.4 54.5 54.7 54.8	65.1 65.3 65.4 65.6 65.8	76.0 76.2 76.3 76.5 76.7	86.8 87.0 87.3 87.5 87.7	97 0	1110 7	130.2 130.5 130.9 131.2 131.6	141 4	152 3	163 9	174 1	184 0
21 22 23 24 25	11.02 11.05 11.08	22.04 22.10 22.16	32.98 33.06 33.15 33.23 33.32	44.3	55.0 55.1 55.2 55.4 55.5	66.0 66.1 66.3 66.5 66.6	76.9 77.1 77.3 77.5 77.7	87.9 88.2 88.4 88.6 88.8	99.2 99.4 99.7	121.2 121.5 121.8	131.9 132.2 132.6 132.9 133.3	143.3 143.6 144.0	154.3 154.7 155.1	165.3 165.7 166.2	176.3 176.8 177.2	187.3 187.8 188.3
26 27 28 29 30	11.13 11.16 11.19 11.22 11.25	22.27 22.33 22.38 22.44 22.49	33.40 33.49 33.57 33.66 33.74	44.5 44.6 44.8 44.9 45.0	55.7 55.8 56.0 56.1 56.2	66.8 67.0 67.1 67.3 67.5	77.9 78.1 78.3 78.5 78.7	89.1 89.3 89.5 89.7 90.0	100.2 100.5 100.7 101.0 101.2	122.5 122.8 123.1 123.4 123.7	133.6 134.0 134.3 134.6 135.0	144.7 145.1 145.5 145.8 146.2	155.9 156.3 156.7 157.1 157.5	167.0 167.4 167.9 168.3 168.7	178.1 178.6 179.0 179.5 180.0	189.3 189.8 190.2 190.7 191.2
31 32 33 34 35	11.28 11.30 11.32 11.36	22.55 22.61 22.66 22.72	1	45 1	56.4 56.5 56.7 56.8 56.9	67.7 67.8 68.0 68.2 68.3	78.9 79.1 79.3 79.5 79.7	on s	101 5	194 0	135 3	148 6	157 0	180 1	180 4	1
36 37 38 39 40	11.47	22.89 22.95 23.00	34.25 34.34 34.42 34.51 34.59	45.8 45.9 46.0	57.1 57.2 57.4 57.5 57.6	68.5 68.7 68.8 69.0 69.2	79.9 80.1 80.3 80.5 80.7	91.3 91.6 91.8	102.8 103.0	125.6 125.9	137.0 137.4	148.4 148.8 149.2	159.8 160.	171.3 171.3 171.3	182.7 183.1	i
41 42 43 44 45	111.62	23.23 23.29	34.68 34.76 34.84 34.93 35.02	46.5	57.8 57.9 58.1 58.2 58.4	69.7	81.5	92.7	104 3	1127.	1130.0	1150.6	162.	2 173 1	2 125.4	196.5 197.0 197.5 197.9 198.4
46 47 48 49 50	11.78 11.76 11.79	23.46 23.51 23.57	35.10 35.19 35.27 35.36 35.44	46.9 47.0 47.1	58.5 58.6 58.8 58.9 59.1	70.5 70.7	82.1 82.3 82.5	93.6 93.8 94.1 94.3	105.8 105.8 105.8 106.1	128.7 129.0 129.1	140.4 140.7 141.1 141.4	152.1 152.3 152.8 153.3	163. 164. 164. 2165.	8 175.1 2 175.1 6 176.1 0 176.1	187.5 9 187.5 4 188.5 8 188.6	198.9 199.4 199.9 200.3 200.8
51 52 53 54 55	11.90	23.74 23.80 23.88	35.53 35.61 35.70 35.76 35.78	47.5 47.6 47.7	59.2 59.4 59.5 59.6 59.8	71.2 71.4 71.6	83.1 83.3 83.5	94.7 95.0 95.2 95.4 95.4	106.6 106.8 107.1 107.3	130.3 130.4 130.3 131.3	142.1 142.4 142.8 143.1 143.1	153.1 154.3 154.3 155.4 155.4	165. 166. 166. 167. 167.	8 177. 2 178. 6 178. 0 178. 4 179.	6 189. 0 189. 5 190. 9 190. 3 191.	201.2 201.8 4 202.3 8 202.8 3 203.2
56 57 58 59	112.0	1144.U	7 35.98 2 36.03 8 36.12 4 36.20	1 20.2	59.9 60.1 60.2 60.3	72.2	84.1	95.9 96.1 96.3 96.5	107.8 108.1 108.4 108.7	131. 132. 132. 132.	143.8 1 144.1 4 144.1 7 144.8	155.1 156. 156. 156.	167. 168. 5168. 9169.	8 179. 2 180. 6 180. 0 181.	7 191. 2 192. 6 192. 0 193.	7 203.7 2 204.2 6 204.7 1 205.2
Hors. Dist.	98.7	197.	1 296.2	394.9	493.6	592	691	790	888	108	8 118	128	138	2 141	8 157	9 1678

Table III.—(Continued)

							7								
20	00	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1100	1200	1300	1400	1500	1600	
24 24 24 24	.19 .25 .30 .36 .42 .47	36.29 36.37 36.46 36.54 36.63 36.71	48.4 48.5 48.6 48.7 48.8 48.9	60.5 60.6 60.8 60.9 61.1 61.2	72.6 72.7 72.9 73.1 73.2 73.4	84.7 84.9 85.1 85.3 85.5 85.7	97.0 97.2	108.9 109.1 109.4 109.6 109.9 110.1	133.4 133.7	145.5 145.8	157.6 158.0	169.7	181.9	194.0	0 1 2 3 4 5
24 24 24	.53 .59 .64 .70 .76	36.80 36.88 36.97 37.05 37.13	49.1 49.2 49.3 49.4 49.5	61.3 61.5 61.6 61.8 61.9	73.6 73.8 73.9 74.1 74.3	85.9 86.0 86.2 86.4 86.6	98.3 98.6 98.8	110.4 110.6 110.9 111.2 111.4	135.2 135.5 135.8	147.5 147.9 148.2	159.8 160.2 160.6	172.1 172.5 172.9	184.4 184.8 185.2	19.67 197.2 197.6	6 7 8 9
24 24 24	.81 .87 .92 .98	37.22 37.30 37.39 37.47 37.56	49.6 49.7 49.8 50.0 50.1	62.0 62.2 62.3 62.5 62.6	74.4 74.6 74.8 74.9 75.1	86.8 87.0 87.2 87.4 87.6	99.2 99.5 99.7 99.9 100.2	111.7 111.9 112.2 112.4 112.7	136.5 136.8 137.1 137.4 137.7	148.9 149.2 149.6 149.9 150.2	161.3 161.6 162.0 162.4 162.7	173.7 174.1 174.5 174.9 175.3	186.1 186.5 186.9 187.4 187.8	198.5 198.8 199.4 199.9 200.3	11 12 13 14 15
25 25 25	.09 .15 .21 .26	37.64 37.73 37.81 37.89 37.98	50.2 50.3 50.4 50.5 50.6	62.7 62.9 63.0 63.2 63.3	75.3 75.4 75.6 75.8 76.0	88.0 88.2 88.4	100.6 100.8 101.0	112.9 113.2 113.4 113.7 113.9	138.3 138.6 138.9	150.9 151.2 151.6	163.5 163.8 164.2	176.1 176.4 176.8	188.6 189.0 189.5	201.2 201.7 202.1	16 17 18 19 20
25 25 25	.38 .43 .49 .54	38.06 38.15 38.23 38.32 38.40	50.8 50.9 51.0 51.1 51.2	63.4 63.6 63.7 63.9 64.0	76.1 76.3 76.5 76.6 76.8	89.0 89.2	101.7 102.0	114.2 114.4 114.7 115.0 115.2	139.9 140.2	152.6 152.9	165.3 165.7	178.0 178.4	190.7 191.2	203.5	21 22 23 24 25
25 25	.66 .71 .77 .83	38.49 33.57 38.65 38.74 38.82	51.3 51.1 51.5 51.6 51.8	64.1 64.3 64.4 64.6 64.7	77.0 77.1 77.3 77.5 77.6	89.8 90.0 90.2 90.4 90.6	102.6 102.8 103.1 103.3 103.5	115.5 115.7 116.0 116.2 116.5	141.1 1:1.4 141.7 142.0 142.4	153.9 154.3 154.6 155.0 155.3	166.8 167.1 167.4 167.9 168.2	179.6 180.0 180.4 180.8 181.2	192.4 192.8 193.3 193.7 194.1	205.3 205.7 206.2 206.6 207.0	26 27 28 29 30
25 26 26	5.94 5.99 5.05 5.11 5.16	38.91 38.99 39.08 39.16 39.24	51.9 52.0 52.1 52.2 52.3	64.8 65.0 65.1 65.3 65.4	77.8 78.0 78.1 78.3 78.5	90.8 91.0 91.2 91.4	103.8 104.0 104.2 104.4	116.7 117.0 117.2 117.5 117.7	142.7 143.0 143.3 143.6	155.6 156.0 156.3 156.6	168.6 169.0 169.3 169.7	181.6 182.0 182.4 182.7	194.5 195.0 195.4 195.8	207.5 208.0 208.4 208.9	31 32 33 34 35
26 26 26	3.22 3.28 3.33 3.40 3.44	39.33 39.41 39.50 39.60 39.66	52.4 52.6 52.7 52.8 52.9	65.5 65.7 65.8 66.0 66.1	78.7 78.8 79.0 79.2 79.3	92.0	105.1	118.0 118.2 118.5 118.8 119.0	144.5 144.8	157.6 158.0	170.8 171.2	183.9 184.2	197.1 197.5	210.2 210.6	36 37 38 39 40
20	3.50 3.56 3.61 3.67 3.72	39.75 39.83 39.92 40.00 40.09	53.0 53.1 53.2 53.3 53.4	66.2 66.4 66.5 66.7 66.8	79.5 79.7 79.8 80.0 80.2	93.1	106.4 106.7	119.2 119.5 119.8 120.0 120.3	146.4	160.0	$173.0 \\ 173.3$	186.3 186.7	200.0	212.9	41 42 43 44 45
20	8.78 8.84 8.89 8.94 7.00	40.17 40.25 40.34 40.42 40.50	53.6 53.7 53.8 53.9 54.0	67.0 67.1 67.2 67.4 67.5	80.3 80.5 80.7 80.8 81.0	93.9 94.1 94.3	107.3 107.6 107.8	120.5 120.8 121.0 121.3 121.5	147.6 147.9 148.2	161.0 161.4 161.7	174.4 174.8 175.2	187.8 188.2 188.6	201.3 201.7 202.1	214.7 215.1 215.6	46 47 48 49 50
2	7.06 7.12 7.17 7.23 7.28	40.59 40.67 40.76 40.84 40.93	54.1 54.2 54.3 54.5 54.6	67.8 67.9 68.1	81.2 81.3 81.5 81.7 81.8	94.7 94.9 95.1 95.3 95.5	108.2 108.5 108.7 108.9 109.1	121.8 122.0 122.3 122.5 122.8	148.8 149.1 149.4 149.8 150.1	162.4 162.7 163.0 163.4 163.7	175.9 176.2 176.6 177.0 177.3	189.4 189.8 190.2 190.6 191.0	203.0 203.4 203.8 204.2 204.6	216.5 216.9 217.4 217.8 218.3	51 52 53 54 55
2 2 2	7.34 7.40 7.45 7.51	41.01 41.09 41.18 41.26	54.7 54.8 54.9 55.0	68.6	82.4	.95.7 95.9 96.1	109.4 109.6 109.8	123.0 123.3 123.5 123.8	150.4 150.7 151.0	164.0 164.4 164.7	177.7 178.1 178.4	191.4 191.8 192.2	205.0 205.5 205.9	218.7 219.2 219.6	56 57 58 59
19	6.6	294.9	393.2	491.4	590	688	786	885	1081	1179	1278	1376	1474	1573	Hors. Dist.

Table III.—(Continued)

			_		8"		100			
• •	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1100
0	13.78	27.56	41.35	55.1	68.9	82.7	96.5	110.3	124.0	151.6
1	13.81	27.62	41.43	55.2	69.0	82.9	96.7	110.5	124.3	151.9
2	13.84	27.68	41.51	55.4	69.2	83.0	96.9	110.7	124.5	152.2
3	13.87	27.73	41.60	55.5	69.3	83.2	97.1	110.9	124.8	152.5
4	13.89	27.78	41.68	55.6	69.5	83.4	97.3	111.2	125.0	152.8
5	13.92	27.84	41.76	55.7	69.6	83.5	97.4	111.4	125.3	153.1
6	13.95	27.90	41.85	55.8	69.8	83.7	97.6	111.6	125.6	153.4
7	13.98	27.96	41.93	55.9	69.9	83.9	97.8	111.8	125.8	153.8
8	14.01	28.01	42.02	56.0	70.0	84.0	98.0	112.0	126.0	154.1
9	14.03	28.07	42.10	56.1	70.2	84.2	98.2	112.3	126.3	154.4
10	14.06	28.12	42.18	56.2	70.3	84.4	98.4	112.5	126.6	154.7
11	14.09	28.18	42.27	56.4	70.4	84.5	98.6	112.7	126.8	155.0
12	14.12	28.23	42.35	56.5	70.6	84.7	98.8	112.9	127.0	155.3
13	14.14	28.29	42.44	56.6	70.7	84.9	99.0	113.2	127.3	155.6
14	14.17	28.35	42.52	56.7	70.9	85.0	99.2	113.4	127.6	155.9
15	14.20	28.40	42.60	56.8	71.0	85.2	99.4	113.6	127.8	156.2
16	14.23	28.46	42.68	56.9	71.1	85.4	99.6	113.8	128.0	156.5
17	14.26	28.51	42.77	57.0	71.3	85.5	99.8	114.0	128.3	156.8
18	14.28	28.57	42.85	57.1	71.4	85.7	100.0	114.3	128.6	157.1
19	14.31	28.62	42.94	57.2	71.6	85.9	100.2	114.5	128.8	157.4
20	14.34	28.68	43.02	57.4	71.7	86.0	100.4	114.7	129.1	157.7
21	14.37	28.74	43.10	57.5	71.8	86.2	100.6	114.9	129.3	158.0
22	14.40	28.79	43.19	57.6	72.0	86.4	100.8	115.2	129.6	158.4
23	14.42	28.95	43.27	57.7	72.1	86.5	101.0	115.4	129.8	158.7
24	14.45	28.90	43.36	57.8	72.3	86.7	101.2	115.6	130.1	159.0
25	14.48	29.96	43.44	57.9	72.4	86.9	101.4	115.8	130.3	159.3
26	14.51	29.02	43.52	58.0	72.5	87.0	101.6	116.1	130.6	159.6
27	14.54	29.07	43.60	58.1	72.7	87.2	101.7	116.3	130.8	159.9
28	14.56	29.13	43.69	58.2	72.8	87.4	101.9	116.5	131.1	160.2
29	14.59	29.18	43.77	58.4	73.0	87.6	102.1	116.7	131.3	160.5
30	14.62	29.24	43.85	58.5	73.1	87.7	102.3	116.9	131.6	160.8
31	14.65	29.29	43.94	58.6	73.2	87.9	102.5	117.2	131.8	161.1
32	14.67	29.35	44.02	58.7	73.4	88.0	102.7	117.4	132.1	161.4
33	14.70	29.40	44.11	58.8	73.5	88.2	102.9	117.6	132.3	161.7
34	14.73	29.46	44.19	58.9	73.6	88.4	103.1	117.8	132.6	162.0
35	14.76	29.52	44.27	59.0	73.8	88.6	103.3	118.1	132.8	162.3
36	14.79	29.57	44.36	59.1	73.9	88.7	103.5	118.3	133.1	162.6
37	14.81	29.63	44.44	59.2	74.1	88.9	103.7	118.5	133.3	162.9
38	14.84	29.68	44.52	59.4	74.2	89.0	103.9	118.7	133.6	163.2
39	14.87	29.74	44.61	59.5	74.3	89.2	104.1	119.0	133.8	163.6
40	14.90	29.78	44.69	59.6	74.5	89.4	104.3	119.2	134.1	163.9
41	14.92	29.85	44.77	59.7	74.6	89.6	104.5	119.4	134.3	164.2
42	14.95	29.90	44.86	59.8	74.8	89.7	104.7	119.6	134.6	164.5
43	14.98	29.96	44.94	59.9	74.9	89.9	104.9	119.8	134.8	164.8
44	15.01	30.02	45.02	60.0	75.0	90.0	105.0	120.1	135.1	165.1
45	15.04	30.07	45.11	60.1	75.2	90.2	105.2	120.3	135.3	165.4
46	15.06	30.13	45.18	60.2	75.3	90.4	105.4	120.5	135.6	165.7
47	15.09	30.18	45.27	60.4	75.5	90.6	105.6	120.7	135.8	166.0
48	15.12	30.24	45.36	60.5	75.6	90.7	105.8	121.0	136.1	166.3
49	15.15	30.29	45.44	60.6	75.7	90.9	106.0	121.2	136.3	166.6
50	15.17	30.35	45.52	60.7	75.9	91.0	106.2	121.4	136.6	166.9
51	15.20	30.40	45.60	60.8	76.0	91.2	106.4	121.6	136.8	167.2
52	15.23	30.46	45.69	60.9	76.2	91.4	106.6	121.8	137.1	167.5
53	15.26	30.51	45.77	61.0	76.3	91.5	106.8	122.1	137.3	167.8
54	15.28	30.57	45.86	61.1	76.4	91.7	107.0	122.3	137.6	168.1
55	15.31	30.62	45.94	61.2	76.6	91.9	107.2	122.5	137.8	168.4
56	15.34	30.68	46.02	61.4	76.7	92.0	107.4	122.7	138.1	168.7
57	15.37	30.74	46.10	61.5	76.8	92.2	107.6	122.9	138.3	169.0
58	15.40	30.79	46.19	61.6	77.0	92.4	107.8	123.2	138.6	169.4
59	15.42	30.85	46.27	61.7	77.1	92.5	108.0	123.4	138.8	169.6
Horz. Dist.	97.82	195.6	293.5	391.3	489.1	587	685	783	880	1076

Table III. $\frac{}{9^{\circ}}$ (Continued)

					9-					
	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1100
0	15.45	30.90	46.35	61.8	77.3	92.7	108.2	123.6	139.1	170.0
1	15.48	30.96	46.44	61.9	77.4	92.9	108.4	123.8	139.3	170.3
2	15.51	31.01	46.52	62.0	77.5	93.0	108.5	124.0	139.6	170.6
3	15.53	31.07	46.60	62.1	77.7	93.2	108.7	124.3	139.8	170.9
4	15.56	31.12	46.68	62.2	77.8	93.4	108.9	124.5	140.0	171.2
5	15.59	31.18	46.77	62.4	77.9	93.5	109.1	124.7	140.3	171.5
6 7 8 9	15.62 15.64 15.67 15.70 15.73	31.23 31.29 31.34 31.40 31.45	46.85 46.93 47.02 47.10 47.18	62.5 62.6 62.7 62.8 62.9	78.1 78.2 78.4 78.5 78.6	93.7 93.9 94.0 94.2 94.4	109.3 109.5 109.7 109.9 110.1	124.9 125.2 125.4 125.6 125.8	140.6 140.8 141.0 141.3 141.5	171.8 172.1 172.4 172.7 173.0
11	15.76	31.51	47.26	63.0	78.8	94.5	110.3	126.0	141.8	173.3
12	15.78	31.56	47.35	63.1	78.9	94.7	110.5	126.3	142.0	173.6
13	15.81	31.62	47.43	63.2	79.0	94.9	110.7	126.5	142.3	173.9
14	15.84	31.68	47.51	63.4	79.2	95.0	110.9	126.7	142.5	174.2
15	15.86	31.73	47.60	63.5	79.3	95.2	111.1	126.9	142.8	174.5
16	15.89	31.79	47.68	63.6	79.5	95.4	111.2	127.1	143.0	174.8
17	15.92	31.84	47.76	63.7	79.6	95.5	111.4	127.4	143.3	175.1
18	15.95	31.90	47.84	63.8	79.7	95.7	111.6	127.6	143.5	175.4
19	15.98	31.95	47.93	63.9	79.9	95.8	111.8	127.8	143.8	175.7
20	16.00	32.01	48.01	64.0	80.0	96.0	112.0	128.0	144.0	176.0
21	16.03	32.06	48.09	64.1	80.2	96.2	112.2	128.2	144.3	176.3
22	16.06	32.12	48.17	64.2	80.3	96.4	112.4	128.5	144.5	176.6
23	16.09	32.17	48.26	64.3	80.4	96.5	112.6	128.7	144.8	176.9
24	16.11	32.23	48.34	64.4	80.6	96.7	112.8	128.9	145.0	177.2
25	16.14	32.28	48.42	64.6	80.7	96.8	113.0	129.1	145.3	177.6
26	16.17	32.34	48.51	64.7	80.8	97.0	113.2	129.4	145.5	177.8
27	16.20	32.39	48.59	64.8	81.0	97.2	113.4	129.6	145.8	178.2
28	16.22	32.45	48.67	64.9	81.1	97.3	113.6	129.8	146.0	178.5
29	16.25	32.50	48.75	65.0	81.3	97.5	113.8	130.0	146.3	178.8
30	16.28	32.56	48.84	65.1	81.4	97.7	114.0	130.2	146.5	179.1
31	16.31	32.61	48.92	65.2	81.5	97.8	114.1	130.4	146.8	179.4
32	16.33	32.67	49.00	65.3	81.7	98.0	114.3	130.7	147.0	179.7
33	16.36	32.72	49.08	65.4	81.8	98.2	114.5	130.9	147.2	180.0
34	16.39	32.78	49.17	65.6	81.9	98.3	114.7	131.1	147.5	180.3
35	16.42	32.83	49.25	65.7	82.1	98.5	114.9	131.3	147.7	180.6
36	16.44	32.89	49.33	65.8	82.2	98.7	115.1	131.6	148.0	180.9
37	16.47	32.94	49.41	65.9	82.4	98.8	115.3	131.8	148.2	181.2
38	16.50	33.00	49.50	66.0	82.5	99.0	115.5	132.0	148.5	181.5
39	16.53	33.05	49.58	66.1	82.6	99.2	115.7	132.2	148.7	181.8
40	16.55	33.11	49.66	66.2	82.8	99.3	115.9	132.4	149.0	182.1
41	16.58	33.16	49.74	66.3	82.9	99.5	116.1	132.6	149.2	182.4
42	16.61	33.22	49.82	66.4	83.0	99.6	116.3	132.9	149.5	182.7
43	16.64	33.27	49.91	66.5	83.2	99.8	116.4	133.1	149.7	183.0
44	16.66	33.33	50.00	66.6	83.3	100.0	116.6	133.3	150.0	183.3
45	16.69	33.38	50.07	66.8	83.4	100.1	116.8	133.5	150.2	183.6
46	16.72	33.44	50.15	66.9	83.6	100.3	117.0	133.7	150.5	183.9
47	16.74	33.49	50.24	67.0	83.7	100.5	117.2	134.0	150.7	184.2
48	16.77	33.54	50.32	67.1	.83.9	100.6	117.4	134.2	151.0	184.5
49	16.80	33.60	50.40	67.2	84.0	100.8	117.6	134.4	151.2	184.8
50	16.83	33.66	50.48	67.3	84.1	101.0	117.8	134.6	151.4	185.1
51	16.86	33.71	50.56	67.4	84.3	101.1	118.0	134.8	151.7	185.4
52	16.88	33.76	50.65	67.5	84.4	101.3	118.2	135.1	151.9	185.7
53	16.91	33.82	50.73	67.6	84.6	101.5	118.4	135.3	152.2	186.0
54	16.94	33.87	50.81	67.8	84.7	101.6	118.6	135.5	152.4	186.3
55	16.96	33.93	50.89	67.9	84.8	101.8	118.8	135.7	152.7	186.6
56	16.99	33.98	50.98	68.0	85.0	102.0	118.9	135.9	152.9	186.9
57	17.02	34.04	51.06	68.1	85.1	102.1	119.1	136.2	153.2	187.2
58	17.05	34.09	51.14	68.2	85.2	102.3	119.3	136.4	153.4	187.5
59	17.08	34.16	51.24	68.3	85.4	102.5	119.5	136.6	153.7	187.9
Horz. Dist.	97.28	194.6	291.9	389.2	486.4	584	681	778	876	1070

Table III.—(Continued)

					10-					
	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1100
0	17.10	34.20	51 30	68.4	85.5	102.6	119.7	136.8	153.9	188.1
1	17.13	34.26	51.39	68.5	85.6	102.8	119.9	137.0	154.2	188.4
2	17.16	34.31	51.47	68.6	85.8	102.9	120.1	137.2	154.4	188.7
3	17.18	34.37	51.55	68.7	85.9	103.1	120.3	137.5	154.6	189.0
4	17.21	34.42	51.63	68.8	86.0	103.3	120.5	137.7	154.9	189.3
5	17.24	34.48	51.71	69.0	86.2	103.4	120.7	137.9	155.1	189.6
6 7 8 9	17.26 17.29 17.32 17.35 17.37	34.53 34.58 34.64 34.69 34.75	51.80 51.88 51.96 52.04 52.12	69.1 69.2 69.3 69.4 69.5	86.3 86.5 86.6 86.7 86.9	103.6 103.8 103.9 104.1 104.2	120.9 121.0 121.2 121.4 121.6	138.1 138.3 138.6 138.8 139.0	155.4 155.6 155.9 156.1 156.4	189.9 190.2 190.5 190.8 191.1
11	17.40	34.80	52.20	69 6	87.0	104.4	121.8	139.2	156.6	191.4
12	17.43	34.86	52.29	69.7	87.1	104.6	122.0	139.4	156.9	191.7
13	17.46	34.91	52.37	69 8	87.3	104.7	122.2	139.6	157.1	192.0
14	17.48	34.97	52.45	69.9	87.4	104.9	122.4	139.9	157.4	192.3
15	17.51	35.02	52.53	70.0	87.6	105.1	122.6	140.1	157.6	192.6
16	17.54	35.08	52.61	70.2	87.7	105.2	122.8	140.3	157.8	192.9
17	17.56	35.13	52.70	70.3	87.8	105.4	123.0	140.5	158.1	193.2
18	17.59	35.18	52.78	70.4	88.0	105.6	123.1	140.7	158.3	193.5
19	17.62	35.24	52.86	70.5	88.1	105.7	123.3	141.0	158.6	193.8
20	17.65	35.29	52.94	70.6	88.2	105.9	123.5	141.2	158.8	194.1
21	17.67	35.35	53.02	70.7	88.4	106.0	123.7	141.4	159.1	194.4
22	17.70	35.40	53.10	70.8	88.5	106.2	123.9	141.6	159.3	194.7
23	17.73	35.46	53.18	70.9	88.6	106.4	124.1	141.8	159.6	195.0
24	17.76	35.51	53.27	71.0	88.8	106.5	124.3	142.0	159.8	195.3
25	17.78	35.56	53.35	71.1	88.9	106.7	124.5	142.3	160.0	195.6
26	17.81	35.62	53.43	71.2	89.0	106.9	124.7	142.5	160.3	195.9
27	17.84	35.67	53.51	71.4	89.2	107.0	124.9	142.7	160.5	196.2
28	17.86	35.73	53.59	71.5	89.3	107.2	125.0	142.9	160.8	196.5
29	17.89	35.78	53.67	71.6	89.5	107.4	125.2	143.1	161.0	196.8
30	17.92	35.84	53.76	71.7	89.6	107.5	125.4	143.4	161.3	197.1
31	17.95	35.89	53.84	71.8	89.7	107.7	125.6	143.6	161.5	197.4
32	17.97	35.94	53.92	71.9	89.9	107.8	125.8	143.8	161.8	197.7
33	18.00	36.00	54.00	72.0	90.0	108.0	126.0	144.0	162.0	198.0
34	18.03	36.05	54.08	72.1	90.1	108.2	126.2	144.2	162.2	198.3
35	18.05	36.11	54.16	72.2	90.3	108.3	126.4	144.4	162.5	198.6
36	18.08	36.16	54.24	72.3	90.4	108.5	126.6	144.6	162.7	198.9
37	18.11	36.22	54.33	72.4	90.5	108.6	126.8	144.9	163.0	199.2
38	18.14	36.27	54.41	72.5	90.7	108.8	127.0	145.1	163.2	199.5
39	18.16	36.32	54.49	72.6	90.8	109.0	127.1	145.3	163.5	199.8
40	18.19	36.38	54.57	72.8	91.0	109.1	127.3	145.5	163.7	200.1
41	18.22	36.43	54.65	72.9	91.1	109.3	127.5	145.7	164.0	200.4
42	18.24	36.49	54.73	73.0	91.2	109.5	127.7	146.0	164.2	200.7
43	18.27	36.54	54.81	73.1	91.4	109.6	127.9	146.2	164.4	201.0
44	18.30	36.60	54.89	73.2	91.5	109.8	128.1	146.4	164.7	201.3
45	18.32	36.65	54.98	73.3	91.6	110.0	128.3	146.6	164.9	201.6
46	18.35	36.70	55.06	73.4	91.8	110.1	128.5	146.8	165.2	201.9
47	18.38	36.76	55.14	73.5	91.9	110.3	128.6	147.0	165.4	202.2
48	18.41	36.81	55.22	73.6	92.0	110.4	128.8	147.2	165.6	202.5
49	18.43	36.87	55.30	73.7	92.2	110.6	129.0	147.5	165.9	202.8
50	18.46	36.92	55.38	73.8	92.3	110.8	129.2	147.7	166.1	203.1
51	18.49	36.98	55.46	74.0	92.4	110.9	129.4	147.9	166.4	203.4
52	18.51	37.03	55.54	74.1	92.6	111.1	129.6	148.1	166.6	203.7
53	18.54	37.08	55.62	74.2	92.7	111.2	129.8	148.3	166.9	204.0
54	18.57	37.14	55.71	74.3	92.8	111.4	130.0	148.6	167.1	204.2
55	18.60	37.19	55.79	74.4	93.0	111.6	130.2	148.8	167.4	204.6
56	18.62	37.24	55.87	74.5	93.1	111.7	130.4	149.0	167.6	204.8
57	18.65	37.30	55.95	74.6	93.2	111.9	130.6	149.2	167.8	205.1
58	18.68	37.35	56.03	74.7	93.4	112.1	130.7	149.4	168.1	205.4
59	18.70	37.41	56.11	74.8	93.5	112.2	130.9	149.6	168.3	205.7
Horz. Dist.	96.68	193.4	290.0	386.7	483.4	580	677	773	870	1064

Table III.—(Continued)

	_					. 110					
	,	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1100
	0	18.73	37.46	56.19	74.9	93.6	112.4	131.1	149.8	168.6	206.0
	1	18.76	37.52	56.27	75.0	93.8	112.6	131.3	150.1	168.8	206.3
	2	18.78	37.57	56.36	75.1	93.9	112.7	131.5	150.3	169.1	206.6
	3	18.81	37.62	56.43	75.2	94.1	112.9	131.7	150.5	169.3	206.9
	4	18.84	37.68	56.51	75.4	94.2	113.0	131.9	150.7	169.5	207.2
	5	18.86	37.73	56.60	75.5	94.3	113.2	132.1	150.9	169.8	207.5
	6	18.89	37.78	56.68	75.6	94.5	113.4	132.2	151.1	170.0	207.8
	7	18.92	37.84	56.76	75.7	94.6	113.5	132.4	151.4	170.3	208.1
	8	18.95	37.89	56.84	75.8	94.7	113.7	132.6	151.6	170.5	208.4
	9	18.97	37.95	56.92	75.9	94.9	113.8	132.8	151.8	170.8	208.7
	10	19.00	38.00	57.00	76.0	95.0	114.0	133.0	152.0	171.0	209.0
	11	19.03	38.05	57.08	76.1	95.1	114.2	133.2	152.2	171.2	209.3
	12	19.05	38.11	57.16	76.2	95.3	114.3	133.4	152.4	171.5	209.6
	13	19.08	38.16	57.24	76.3	95.4	114.5	133.6	152.6	171.7	209.9
	14	19.11	38.22	57.32	76.4	95.5	114.6	133.8	152.9	172.0	210.2
	15	19.13	38.27	57.40	76.5	95.7	114.8	133.9	153.1	172.2	210.5
	16	19.16	38.32	57.48	76.6	95.8	115.0	134.1	153.3	172.4	210.8
	17	19.19	38.38	57.56	76.8	95.9	115.1	134.3	153.5	172.7	211.1
	18	19.22	38.43	57.64	76.9	96.1	115.3	134.5	153.7	172.9	211.4
	19	19.24	38.48	57.72	77.0	96.2	115.4	134.7	153.9	173.2	211.7
	20	19.27	38.54	57.81	77.1	96.3	115.6	134.9	154.2	173.4	212.0
	21	19.30	38.59	57.89	77.2	96.5	115.8	135.1	154.4	173.7	212.2
	22	19.32	38.64	57.97	77.3	96.6	115.9	135.2	154.6	173.9	212.5
	23	19.35	38.70	58.05	77.4	96.8	116.1	135.4	154.8	174.1	212.8
	24	19.38	36.75	58.13	77.5	96.9	116.3	135.6	155.0	174.4	213.1
	25	19.40	38.80	58.21	77.6	97.0	116.4	135.8	155.2	174.6	213.4
	26	19.43	38.86	58.29	77.7	97.2	116.6	136.0	155.4	174.9	213.7
	27	19.46	38.91	58.37	77.8	97.3	116.7	136.2	155.6	175.1	214.0
	28	19.48	38.97	58.45	77.9	97.4	116.9	136.4	155.9	175.4	214.3
	29	19.51	39.02	58.53	78.0	97.6	117.1	136.6	156.1	175.6	214.6
	30	19.54	39.07	58.61	78.2	97.7	117.2	136.8	156.3	175.8	214.9
	31	19.56	39.13	58.69	78.2	97.8	117.4	136.9	156.5	176.1	215.2
	32	19.59	39.18	58.77	78.4	98.0	117.5	137.1	156.7	176.3	215.5
	33	19.62	39.23	58.85	78.5	98.1	117.7	137.3	156.9	176.6	215.8
	34	19.64	39.29	58.93	78.6	98.2	117.9	147.5	157.2	176.8	216.1
	35	19.67	39.34	59.01	78.7	98.4	118.0	137.7	157.4	177.0	216.4
,	36	19.70	39.39	59.09	78.8	98.5	118.2	137.9	157.6	177.3	216.7
	37	19.72	39.45	59.17	78.9	98.6	118.3	138.1	157.8	177.5	217.0
	38	19.75	39.50	59.25	79.0	98.8	118.5	138.2	158.0	177.8	217.3
	39	19.78	39.56	59.33	79.1	98.9	118.7	138.4	158.2	178.0	217.6
	40	19.80	39.61	59.41	79.2	99.0	118.8	138.6	158.4	178.2	217.8
	41	19.83	39.66	59.49	79.3	99.2	119.0	138.8	158.6	178.5	218.1
	42	19.86	39.72	59.57	79.4	99.3	119.2	139.0	158.9	178.7	218.4
	43	19.88	39.77	59.65	79.5	99.4	119.3	139.2	159.1	179.0	218.7
	44	19.91	39.82	59.73	79.6	99.6	119.5	139.4	159.3	179.2	219.0
	45	19.94	39.88	59.81	79.8	99.7	119.6	139.6	159.5	179.4	219.3
	46	19.96	39.93	59.89	79.9	99.8	119.8	139.8	159.7	179.7	219.6
	47	19.99	39.98	59.97	80.0	100.0	120.0	139.9	159.9	179.9	219.9
	48	20.02	40.04	60.05	80.1	100.1	120.1	140.1	160.1	180.2	220.2
	49	20.04	40.09	60.13	80.2	100.2	120.3	140.3	160.4	180.4	220.5
	50	20.07	40.14	60.21	80.3	100.4	120.4	140.5	160.6	180.6	220.8
	51	20.10	40.20	60.29	80.4	100.5	120.6	140.7	160.8	180.9	221.1
	52	20.12	40.25	60.37	80.5	100.6	120.7	140.9	161.0	181.1	221.4
	53	20.15	40.30	60.45	80.6	100.8	120.9	141.0	161.2	181.4	221.7
	54	20.18	40.36	60.53	80.7	100.9	121.1	141.2	161.4	181.6	222.0
	55	20.20	40.41	60.61	80.8	101.0	121.2	141.4	161.6	181.8	222.2
	56	20.23	40.46	60.69	80.9	101.2	121.4	141.6	161.8	182.1	222.5
	57	20.26	40.51	60.77	81.0	101.3	121.5	141.8	162.1	182.3	222.8
	58	20.28	40.57	60.85	81.1	101.4	121.7	142.0	162.3	182.6	223.1
	59	20.31	40.62	60.93	81.2	101.6	121.9	142.2	162.5	182.8	223.4
	Ĥorz. Dist.	96 03	192.1	288.1	384.1	480.2	576	672	768	864	1056

Table III.—(Continued)

					12-					
•	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1100
0	20.34	40.67	61.01	81.3	101.7	122.0	142.4	162.7	183.0	223.7
1	20.36	40.73	61.09	81.4	101.8	122.2	142.5	162.9	183.3	224.0
2	20.39	40.78	61.17	81.6	102.0	122.3	142.7	163.1	183.5	224.3
3	20.42	40.83	61.25	81.7	102.1	122.5	142.9	163.3	183.7	224.6
4	20.44	40.89	61.33	81.8	102.2	122.7	143.1	163.5	184.0	224.9
5	20.47	40.94	61.41	81.9	102.4	122.8	143.3	163.8	184.2	225.2
6	20.50	40.99	61.49	82.0	102.5	123.0	143.5	164.0	184.5	225.5
7	20.52	41.04	61.57	82.1	102.6	123.1	143.7	164.2	184.7	225.8
8	20.55	41.10	61.65	82.2	102.8	123.3	143.8	164.4	184.9	226.0
9	20.58	41.15	61.73	82.3	102.9	123.4	144.0	164.6	185.2	226.3
10	20.60	41.20	61.81	82.4	103.0	123.6	144.2	164.8	185.4	226.6
11	20.63	41.26	61.89	82.5	103.1	123.8	144.4	165.0	185.7	226.9
12	20.66	41.31	61.97	82.6	103.3	123.9	144.6	165.2	185.9	227.2
13	20.68	41.36	62:04	82.7	103.4	124.1	144.8	165.4	186.1	227.5
14	20.71	41.42	62.12	82.8	103.5	124.2	145.0	165.7	186.4	227.8
15	20.73	41.47	62.20	82.9	103.7	124.4	145.1	165.9	186.6	228.1
16	20.76	41.52	62.28	83.0	103.8	124.6	145.3	166.1	186.8	228.4
17	20.79	41.58	62.36	83.2	103.9	124.7	145.5	166.3	187.1	228.7
18	20.81	41.63	62.44	83.3	104.1	124.9	145.7	166.5	187.3	229.0
19	20.84	41.68	62.52	83.4	104.2	125.0	145.9	166.7	187.6	229.2
20	20.87	41.73	62.60	83.5	104.3	125.2	146.1	166.9	187.8	229.5
21	20.89	41.79	62.68	83.6	104.5	125.4	146.2	167.2	188.0	229.8
22	20.92	41.84	62.76	83.7	104.6	125.5	146.4	167.4	188.3	230.1
23	20.95	41.89	62.84	83.8	104.7	125.7	146.6	167.6	188.5	230.4
24	20.97	41.94	62.92	83.9	104.9	125.8	146.8	167.8	188.8	230.7
25	21.00	42.00	63.00	84.0	105.0	126.0	147.0	168.0	189.0	231.0
26	21.03	42.05	63.08	84.1	105.1	126.2	147.2	168.2	189.2	231.3
27	21.05	42.10	63.16	84.2	105.3	126.3	147.4	168.4	189.5	231.6
28	21.08	42.16	63.23	84.3	105.4	126.5	147.6	168.6	189.7	231.9
29	21.10	42.21	63.31	84.4	105.5	126.6	147.7	168.8	189.9	232.2
30	21.13	42.26	63.39	84.5	105.7	126.8	147.9	169.0	190.2	232.4
31	21.16	42.32	63.47	84.6	105.8	127.0	148.1	169.3	190.4	232.7
32	21.18	42.37	63.55	84.7	105.9	127.1	148.3	169.5	190.6	233.0
33	21.21	42.42	63.63	84.8	106.0	127.3	148.5	169.7	190.9	233.3
34	21.24	42.47	63.71	85.0	106.2	127.4	148.7	169.9	191.1	233.6
35	21.26	42.52	63.79	85.0	106.3	127.6	148.8	170.1	191.4	233.9
36	21.29	42.58	63.87	85.2	106.4	127.7	149.0	170.3	191.6	234.2
37	21.32	42.63	63.95	85.3	106.6	127.9	149.2	170.5	191.8	234.5
38	21.34	42.68	64.02	85.4	106.7	128.0	149.4	170.7	192.1	234.8
39	21.37	42.74	64.10	85.5	106.8	128.2	149.6	170.9	192.3	235.0
40	21.39	42.79	64.18	85.6	107.0	128.4	149.8	171.2	192.6	235.3
41	21.42	42.84	64.26	85.7	107.1	128.5	149.9	171.4	192.8	235.6
42	21.45	42.89	64.34	85.8	107.2	128.7	150.1	171.6	193.0	235.9
43	21.47	42.95	64.42	85.9	107.4	128.8	150.3	171.8	193.3	236.2
44	21.50	43.00	64.50	86.0	107.5	129.0	150.5	172.0	193.5	236.5
45	21.53	43.05	64.58	86.1	107.6	129.2	150.7	172.2	193.7	236.8
46	21.55	43.10	64.66	86.2	107.8	129.3	150.9	172.4	194.0	237.1
47	21.58	43.16	.64.73	86.3	107.9	129.5	151.0	172.6	194.2	237.4
48	21.60	43.21	64.81	86.4	108.0	129.6	151.2	172.8	194.4	237.6
49	21.63	43.26	64.89	86.5	108.2	129.8	151.4	173.0	194.7	237.9
50	21.66	43.31	64.97	86.6	108.3	129.9	151.6	173.2	194.9	238.2
51	21.68	43.37	65.05	86.7	108.4	130.1	151.8	173.5	195.2	238.5
52	21.71	43.42	65.13	86.8	108.6	130.2	152.0	173.7	195.4	238.8
53	21.74	43.47	65.21	86.9	108.7	130.4	152.2	173.9	195.6	239.1
54	21.76	43.52	65.28	87.0	108.8	130.6	152.3	174.1	195.8	239.4
55	21.79	43.58	65.36	87.2	108.9	130.7	152.5	174.3	196.1	239.7
56	21.81	43.63	65.44	87.3	109.1	130.9	152.7	174.5	196.3	240.0
57	21.84	43.68	65.52	87.4	109.2	131.0	152.9	174.7	196.6	240.2
58	21.87	43.73	65.60	87.5	109.3	131.2	153.1	174.9	196.8	240.5
59	21.89	43.78	65.68	87.6	109.5	131.4	153.2	175.1	197.0	240.8
Horz. Dist.	95.32	190.6	286.0	381.3	476.6	572	667	763	858	1048

Table III.—(Continued)

					10					
'	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1100
0	21.92	43.84	65.76	87.7	109.6	131.5	153.4	175.4	197.3	241.1
1	21.94	43.89	65.83	87.8	109.7	131.7	153.6	175.6	197.5	241.4
2	21.97	43.94	65.91	87.9	109.9	131.8	153.8	175.8	197.7	241.7
3	22.00	43.99	65.99	88.0	110.0	132.0	154.0	176.0	198.0	242.0
4	22.02	44.05	66.07	88.1	110.1	132.1	154.2	176.2	198.2	242.2
5	22.05	44.10	66.15	88.2	110.2	132.3	154.3	176.4	198.4	242.5
6 7 8 9	22.08 22.10 22.13 22.15 22.18	44.15 44.20 44.26 44.31 44.36	66.23 66.30 66.38 66.46 66.54	88.3 88.4 88.5 88.6 88.7	110.4 110.5 110.6 110.8 110.9	132.4 132.6 132.8 132.9 133.1	154.5 154.7 154.9 155.1 155.3	176.6 176.8 177.0 177.2 177.4	198.7 198.9 199.2 199.4 199.6	242.8 243.1 243.4 243.7 244.0
11	22.21	44.41	66.62	88.8	111.0	133.2	155.4	177.6	199.8	244.3
12	22.23	44.46	66.70	88.9	111.2	133.4	155.6	177.9	200.1	244.6
13	22.26	44.52	66.77	89.0	111.3	133.6	155.8	178.1	200.3	244.8
14	22.28	44.57	66.85	89.1	111.4	133.7	156.0	178.3	200.6	245.1
15	22.31	44.62	66.93	89.2	111.6	133.9	156.2	178.5	200.8	245.4
16	22.34	44.67	67.01	89.3	111.7	134.0	156.4	178.7	201.0	245.7
17	22.36	44.72	67.09	89.4	111.8	134.2	156.5	178.9	201.3	246.0
18	22.39	44.78	67.16	89.6	111.9	134.3	156.7	179.1	201.5	246.3
19	22.41	44.83	67.24	89.7	112.1	134.5	156.9	179.3	201.7	246.6
20	22.44	44.88	67.32	89.8	112.2	134.6	157.1	179.5	202.0	246.8
21	22.47	44.93	67.40	89.9	112.3	134.8	157.3	179.7	202.2	247.1
22	22.49	44.98	67.48	90.0	112.5	135.0	157.4	179.9	202.4	247.4
23	22.52	45.04	67.55	90.1	112.6	135.1	157.6	180.1	202.7	247.7
24	22.54	45.09	67.63	90.2	112.7	135.3	157.8	180.4	202.9	248.0
25	22.57	45.14	67.71	90.3	112.8	135.4	158.0	180.6	203.1	248.3
26	22.60	45.19	67.79	90.4	113.0	135.6	158,2	180.8	203.4	248.6
27	22.62	45.24	67.86	90.5	113.1	135.7	158,4	181.0	203.6	248.8
28	22.65	45.30	67.94	90.6	113.2	135.9	158,5	181.2	203.8	249.1
29	22.67	45.35	68.02	90.7	113.4	136.0	158,7	181.4	204.1	249.4
30	22.70	45.40	68.10	90.8	113.5	136.2	158,9	181.6	204.3	249.7
31	22.73	45.45	68.18	90.9	113.6	136.4	159.1	181.8	204.5	250.0
32	22.75	45.50	68.25	91.0	113.8	136.5	159.3	182.0	204.8	250.3
33	22.78	45.55	68.33	91.1	113.9	136.7	159.4	182.2	205.0	250.6
34	22.80	45.61	68.41	91.2	114.0	136.8	159.6	182.4	205.2	250.8
35	22.83	45.66	68.49	91.3	114.1	137.0	159.8	182.6	205.5	251.1
36	22.86	45.71	68.56	91.4	114.3	137.1	160.0	182.8	205.7	251.4
37	22.88	45.76	68.64	91.5	114.4	137.3	160.2	183.0	205.9	251.7
38	22.91	45.81	68.72	91.6	114.5	137.4	160.4	183.2	206.2	252.0
39	22.94	45.88	68.81	91.8	114.7	137.6	160.6	183.5	206.4	252.3
40	22.96	45.92	68.88	91.8	114.8	137.8	160.7	183.7	206.6	252.5
41	22.98	45.97	68.95	91.9	114.9	137.9	160.9	183.9	206.9	252.8
42	23.01	46.02	69.03	92.0	115.0	138.1	161.1	184.1	207.1	253.1
43	23.04	46.07	69.11	92.1	115.2	138.2	161.2	184.3	207.3	253.4
44	23.06	46.12	69.18	92.2	115.3	138.4	161.4	184.5	207.6	253.7
45	23.09	46.18	69.26	92.4	115.4	138.5	161.6	184.7	207.8	254.0
46	23.11	46.23	69.34	92.4	115.6	138.7	161.8	184.9	208.0	254.2
47	23.14	46.28	69.42	92.6	115.7	138.8	162.0	185.1	208.2	254.5
48	23.15	46.30	69.46	92.6	115.8	138.9	162.1	185.2	208.4	254.7
49	23.19	46.38	69.57	92.8	116.0	139.1	162.3	185.5	208.7	255.1
50	23.22	46.43	69.65	92.9	116.1	139.3	162.5	185.7	209.0	255.4
51	23.24	46.48	69.73	93.0	116.2	139.4	162.7	185.9	209.2	255.7
52	23.27	46.54	69.81	93.1	116.3	139.6	162.9	186.2	209.4	256.0
53	23:29	46.59	69.88	93.2	116.5	139.8	163.0	186.4	209.6	256.2
54	23.32	46.64	69.96	93.3	116.6	139.9	163.2	186.6	209.9	256.5
55	23.34	46.69	70.04	93.4	116.7	140.1	163.4	186.8	210.1	256.8
56	23.37	46.74	70.11	93.5	116.9	140.2	163.6	187.0	210.3	257.1
57	23.40	46.79	70.19	93.6	117.0	140.4	163.8	187.2	210.6	257.4
58	23.42	46.84	70.27	93.7	117.1	140.5	164.0	187.4	210.8	257.6
59	23.45	46.90	70.34	93.8	117.2	140.7	164.1	187.6	211.0	257.9
Horz. Dist.	94.55	189.1	283.6	378.2	472.8	567	662	756	851	1040

Table III.—(Continued)

					14"					
	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1100
0	23.47	47.00	70.42	93.9	117.4	140.8	164.3	187.8	211.3	258.2
1	23.50	47.00	70.50	94.0	117.5	141.0	164.5	188.0	211.5	258.5
2	23.52	47.05	70.58	94.1	117.6	141.2	164.7	188.2	211.7	258.8
3	23.55	47.10	70.65	94.2	117.8	141.3	164.8	188.4	212.0	259.1
4	23.58	47.15	70.73	94.3	117.9	141.5	165.0	188.6	212.2	259.3
5	23.60	47.20	70.81	94.4	118.0	141.6	165.2	188.8	212.4	259.6
6 7 8 9	23.63 23.65 23.68 23.70 23.73	47.25 47.31 47.36 47.41 47.46	70.88 70.96 71.04 71.11 71.19	94.5 94.6 94.7 94.8 94.9	118.1 118.3 118.4 118.5 118.6	141.8 141.9 142.1 142.2 142.4	165.4 165.6 165.8 165.9 166.1	189.0 189.2 189.4 189.6 189.8	212.6 212.9 213.1 213.3 213.6	259.9 260.2 260.5 260.8 261.0
11	23.76	47.51	71.27	95.0	118.8	142.5	166.3	190.0	213.8	261.3
12	23.78	47.56	71.34	95.1	118.9	142.7	166.5	190.2	214.0	261.6
13	23.81	47.61	71.42	95.2	119.0	142.8	166.6	190.5	214.3	261.9
14	23.83	47.66	71.50	95.3	119.2	143.0	166.8	190.7	214.5	262.2
15	23.86	47.72	71.57	95.4	119.3	143.2	167.0	190.9	214.7	262.4
16	23.88	47.77	71.65	95.5	119.4	.143.3	167.2	191.1	215.0	262.7
17	23.91	47.82	71.73	95.6	119.6	143.4	167.4	191.3	215.2	263.0
18	23.94	47.87	71.80	95.7	119.7	143.6	167.5	191.5	215.4	263.3
19	23.96	47.92	71.88	95.8	119.8	143.8	167.7	191.7	215.6	263.6
20	23.98	47.97	72.00	95.9	119.9	143.9	167.9	191.9	215.9	263.8
21	24.01	48.02	72.03	96.0	120.1	144.1	168.1	192.1	216.1	264.1
22	24.04	48.07	72.11	96.2	120.2	144.2	168.3	192.3	216.3	264.4
23	24.06	48.12	72.19	96.2	120.3	144.4	168.4	192.5	216.6	264.7
24	24.09	48.18	72.26	96.4	120.4	144.5	168.6	192.7	216.8	265.0
25	24.11	48.23	72.34	96.4	120.6	144.7	168.8	192.9	217.0	265.2
26	24.14	48.28	72.42	96.6	120.7	144.8	169.0	193.1	217.2	265.5
27	24.16	48.33	72.49	96.7	120.8	145.0	169.2	193.3	217.5	265.8
28	24.19	48.38	72.57	96.8	121.0	145.1	169.3	193.5	217.7	266.1
29	24.22	48.43	72.64	96.9	121.1	145.3	169.5	193.7	217.9	266.4
30	24.24	48.43	72.72	97.0	121.2	145.4	169.7	193.9	218.2	266.6
31	24.27	48.53	72.80	97.1	121.3	145.6	169.9	194.1	218.4	266.9
32	24.29	48.58	72.88	97.2	121.5	145.8	170.0	194.3	218.6	267.2
33	24.32	48.63	72.95	97.3	121.6	145.9	170.2	194.5	218.8	267.5
34	24.34	48.68	73.03	97.4	121.7	146.0	170.4	194.7	219.1	267.8
35	24.37	48.74	73.10	97.5	121.8	146.2	170.6	194.9	219.3	268.0
36	24.39	48.79	73.18	97.6	122.0	146.4	170.8	195.1	219.5	268.3
37	24.42	48.84	73.26	97.7	122.1	146.5	170.9	195.4	219.8	268.6
38	24.44	48.89	73.33	97.8	122.2	146.7	171.1	195.6	220.0	268.9
39	24.47	48.94	73.41	97.9	122.4	146.8	171.3	195.8	220.2	269.2
40	24.50	48.99	73.48	98.0	122.5	147.0	171.5	196.0	220.4	269.4
41	24.52	49.04	73.56	98.1	122.6	147.1	171.6	196.2	220.7	269.7
42	24.54	49.09	73.64	98.2	122.7	147.3	171.8	196.4	220.9	270.0
43	24.57	49.14	73.71	98.3	122.8	147.4	172.0	196.6	221.1	270.3
44	24.60	49.19	73.79	98.4	123.0	147.6	172.2	196.8	221.4	270.6
45	24.62	49.24	73.86	98.5	123.1	147.7	172.4	197.0	221.6	270.8
46	24.65	49.29	73.94	98.6	123.2	147.9	172.5	197.2	221.8	271.1
47	24.67	49.34	74.02	98.7	123.4	148.0	172.7	197.4	222.1	271.4
48	24.70	49.39	74.09	98.8	123.5	148.2	172.9	197.6	222.3	271.7
49	24.72	49.44	74.17	98.9	123.6	148.3	173.1	197.8	222.5	272.0
50	24.75	49.50	74.24	99.0	123.7	148.5	173.2	198.0	222.7	272.2
51	24.77	49.55	74.32	99.1	123.9	148.6	173.4	198.2	223.0	272.5
52	24.80	49.60	74.39	99.2	124.0	148.8	173.6	198.4	223.2	272.8
53	24.82	49.65	74.47	99.3	124.1	148.9	173.8	198.6	223.4	273.1
54	24.85	49.70	74.55	99.4	124.2	149.1	173.9	198.8	223.6	273.3
55	24.87	49.75	74.62	99.5	124.4	149.2	174.1	199.0	223.9	273.6
56	24.90	49.80	74.70	99.6	124.5	149.4	174.3	199.2	224.1	273.9
57	24.92	49.85	74.77	99.7	124.6	149.6	174.5	199.4	224.3	274.2
58	24.95	49.90	74.85	99.8	124.8	149.7	174.6	199.6	224.6	274.4
59	24.98	49.95	74.92	99.9	124.9	149.8	174.8	199.8	224.8	274.7
Horz. Dist.	93.73	187.5	281.2	374.9	468.6	562	656	750	844	1031

Table III.—(Continued)

					15°`					
,	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1100
0	25.00	50.00	75.00	100.0	125.0	150.0	175.0	200.0	225.0	275.0
1	25.02	50.05	75.08	100.1	125.2	150.2	175.2	200.2	225.3	275.3
2	25.05	50.10	75.15	100.2	125.2	150.3	175.4	200.4	225.5	275.6
3	25.08	50.15	75.23	100.3	125.4	150.4	175.5	200.6	225.7	275.8
4	25.10	50.20	75.30	100.4	125.5	150.6	175.7	200.8	225.9	276.1
5	25.13	50.25	75.38	100.5	125.6	150.8	175.9	201.0	226.1	276.4
6	25.15	50.30	75.45	100.6	125.8	150.9	176.0	201.2	226.4	276.6
7	25.18	50.35	75.53	100.7	125.9	151.1	176.2	201.4	226.6	276.9
8	25.20	50.40	75.60	100.8	126.0	151.2	176.4	201.6	226.8	277.2
9	25.23	50.45	75.68	100.9	126.1	151.4	176.6	201.8	227.0	277.5
10	25.25	50.50	75.76	101.0	126.3	151:5	176.8	202.0	227.3	277.8
11	25.28	50.55	75.83	101.1	126.4	151.7	176.9	202.2	227.5	278.0
12	25.30	50.60	75.90	101.2	126.5	151.8	177.1	202.4	227.7	278.3.
13	25.33	50.65	75.98	101.3	126.6	152.0	177.3	202.6	227.9	278.6
14	25.35	50.70	76.06	101.4	126.8	152.1	177.5	202.8	228.2	278.9
15	25.38	50.75	76.13	101.5	126.9	152.3	177.6	203.0	228.4	279.2
16	25.40	50.80	76.21	101.6	127.0	152.4	177.8	203.2	228.6	279.4
17	25.43	50.85	76.28	101.7	127.1	152.6	178.0	203.4	228.8	279.7
18	25.45	50.90	76.36	101.8	127.3	152.7	178.2	203.6	229.1	280.0
19	25.48	50.95	76.43	101.9	127.4	152.9	178.3	203.8	229.3	280.2
20	25.50	51.00	76.51	102.0	127.5	153.0	178.5	204.0	229.5	280.5
21	25.53	51.05	76.58	102.1	127.6	153.2	178.7	204.2	229.7	280.8
22	25.55	51.10	76.66	102.2	127.8	153.3	178.9	204.4	230.0	281.1
23	25.58	51.15	76.73	102.3	127.9	153.5	179.0	204.6	230.2	281.2
24	25.60	51.20	76.81	102.4	128.0	153.6	179.2	204.8	230.4	281.6
25	25.63	51.25	76.88	102.5	128.1	153.8	179.4	205.0	230.6	281.9
26	25.65	51.30	76.95	102.6	128.3	153.9	179.6	205.2	230.9	282.2
27	25.68	51.35	77.03	102.7	128.4	154.1	179.7	205.4	231.1	282.4
28	25.70	51.40	77.11	102.8	128.5	154.2	179.9	205.6	231.3	282.7
29	25.73	51.45	77.18	102.9	128.6	154.4	180.1	205.8	231.5	283.0
30	25.75	51.50	77.26	103.0	128.8	154.5	180.3	206.0	231.8	283.3
31	25.78	51.55	77.33	103.1	128.9	154.7	180.4	206.2	232.0	283.6
32	25.80	51.60	77.41	103.2	129.0	154.8	180.6	206.4	232.2	283.8
33	25.83	51.65	77.48	103.3	129.1	155.0	180.8	206.6	232.4	284.1
34	25.85	51.70	77.56	103.4	129.3	155.1	181.0	206.8	232.7	284.4
35	25.88	51.75	77.63	103.5	129.4	155.3	181.1	207.0	232.9	284.6
36	25.90	51.80	77.70	103.6	129.5	155.4	181.3	207.2	233.1	284.9
37	25.93	51.85	77.78	103.7	129.6	155.6	181.5	207.4	233.3	285.2
38	25.95	51.90	77.85	103.8	129.8	155.7	181.7	207.6	233.6	285.5
39	25.98	51.95	77.93	103.9	129.9	155.9	181.8	207.8	233.8	285.7
40	26.00	52.00	78.00	104.0	130.0	156.0	182.0	208.0	234.0	286.0
41	26.02	52.05	78.08	104.1	130.2	156.2	182.2	208.2	234.3	286.3
42	26.05	52.10	78.15	104.2	130.2	156.3	182.4	208.4	234.5	286.6
43	26.08	52.15	78.23	104.3	130.4	156.4	182.5	208.6	234.7	286.8
44	26.10	52.20	78.30	104.4	130.5	156.6	182.7	208.8	234.9	287.1
45	26.12	52.25	78.38	104.5	130.6	156.8	182.9	209.0	235.1	287.4
46	26.15	52.30	78.45	104.6	130.8	156.9	183.0	209.2	235.4	287.6
47	26.18	52.35	78.52	104.7	130.9	157.0	183.2	209.4	235.6	287.9
48	26.20	52.40	78.60	104.8	131.0	157.2	183.4	209.6	235.8	288.2
49	26.22	52.45	78.67	104.9	131.1	157.3	183.6	209.8	236.0	288.5
50	26.25	52.50	78.75	105.0	131.2	157.5	183.7	210.0	236.2	288.7
51	26.27	52.55	78.82	105.1	131.4	157.6	183.9	210.2	236.5	289.0
52	26.30	52.60	78.90	105.2	131.5	157.8	184.1	210.4	236.7	289.3
53	26.32	52.65	78.97	105.3	131.6	157.9	184.3	210.6	236.9	289.6
54	26.35	52.70	79.04	105.4	131.7	158.1	184.4	210.8	237.1	289.8
55	26.37	52.74	79.12	105.5	131.9	158.2	184.6	211.0	237.4	290.1
56	26.40	52.79	79.19	105.6	132.0	158.4	184.8	211.2	237.6	290.4
57	26.42	52.84	79.27	105.7	132.1	158.5	185.0	211.4	237.8	290.6
58	26.45	52.89	79.34	105.8	132.2	158.7	185.1	211.6	238.0	290.9
59	26.47	52.94	79.42	105.9	132.4	158.8	185.3	211.8	238.2	291.2
Horz. Dist.	92.86	185.7	278.6	371.4	464.3	557	650	743	836	1022

Table III.—(Continued)

					16,					
. •	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1100
0	26.50	52.99	79.45	106.0	132.5	159.0	185.5	212.0	238.5	291.5
1	26.52	53.04	79.56	106.1	132.6	159.1	185.6	212.2	238.7	291.7
2	26.55	53.09	79.64	106.2	132.7	159.3	185.8	212.4	238.9	292.0
3	26.57	53.14	79.71	106.3	132.8	159.4	186.0	212.6	239.1	292.3
4	26.60	53.19	79.78	106.4	133.0	159.6	186.2	212.8	239.4	292.5
5	26.62	53.24	79.86	106.5	133.1	159.7	186.3	.213.0	239.6	292.8
6	26.64	53.29	79.90	106.6	133.2	159.9	186.5	213.2	239.8	293.1
7	26.67	53.34	80.01	106.7	133.3	160.0	186.7	213.4	240.0	293.4
8	26.69	53.39	80.08	106.8	133.5	160.2	186.8	213.5	240.2	293.6
9	26.72	53.44	80.15	106.9	133.6	160.3	187.0	213.7	240.5	293.9
10	26.74	53.48	80.23	107.0	133.7	160.4	187.2	213.9	240.7	294.2
11	26.77	53.53	80.30	107.1	133.8	160.6	187.4	214.1	240.9	294.4
12	26.79	53.58	80.38	107.2	134.0	160.8	187.5	214.3	241.1	294.7
13	26.82	53.63	80.45	107.3	134.1	160.9	187.7	214.5	241.3	295.0
14	26.84	53.68	80.52	107.4	134.2	161.0	187.9	214.7	241.6	295.2
15	26.86	53.73	80.60	107.5	134.3	161.2	188.1	214.9	241.8	295.5
16	26.89	53.78	80.67	107.6	134.4	161.3	188.2	215.1	242.0	295.8
17	26.91	53.83	80.74	107.7	134.6	161.5	188.4	215.3	242.2	296.0
18	26.94	53.88	80.82	107.8	134.7	161.6	188.6	215.5	242.4	296.3
19	26.96	53.93	80.89	107.8	134.8	161.8	188.7	215.7	242.7	296.6
20	26.99	53.98	80.96	108.0	134.9	161.9	188.9	215.9	242.9	296.9
21	27.01	54.02	81.04	108.0	135.1	162.1	189.1	216.1	243.1	297.1
22	27.04	54.07	81.11	108.2	135.2	162.2	189.3	216.3	243.3	297.4
23	27.06	54.12	81.18	108.2	135.3	162.4	189.4	216.5	243.6	297.7
24	27.09	54.17	81.26	108.3	135.4	162.5	189.6	216.7	243.8	297.9
25	27.11	54.22	81.33	108.4	135.6	162.7	189.8	216.9	244.0	298.2
26	27.13	54.26	81.40	108.5	135.6	162.8	189.9	217.0	244.2	298.4
27	27.16	54.32	81.48	108.6	135.8	163.0	190.1	217.3	244.4	298.7
28	27.18	54.37	81.55	108.7	135.9	163.1	190.3	217.5	244.6	299.0
29	27.21	54.41	81.62	108.8	136.0	163.2	190.4	217.7	244.9	299.3
30	27.23	54.46	81.70	108.9	136.2	163.4	190.6	217.9	245.1	299.6
31	27.26	54.51	81.77	109.0	136.3	163.5	190.8	218.0	245.3	299.8
32	27.28	54.56	81.84	109.1	136.4	163.7	191.0	218.2	245.5	300.1
33	27.30	54.61	81.92	109.2	136.5	163.8	191.1	218.4	245.8	300.4
34	27.33	54.66	81.99	109.3	136.6	164.0	191.3	218.6	246.0	300.6
35	27.35	54.71	82.10	109.4	136.8	164.1	191.5	218.8	246.2	300.9
36	27.38	54.76	82.13	109.5	136.9	164.3	191.6	219.0	246.4	301.2
37	27.40	54.80	82.21	109.6	137.0	164.4	191.8	219.2	246.6	301.4
38	27.43	54.85	82.28	109.7	137.1	164.6	192.0	219.4	246.8	301.7
39	27.45	54.90	82.35	109.8	137.3	164.7	192.2	219.6	247.1	302.0
40	27.48	54.95	82.43	109.9	137.4	164.8	192.3	219.8	247.3	302.2
41	27.50	55.00	82.50	110.0	137.5	165.0	192.5	220.0	247.5	302.5
42	27.52	55.05	82.57	110.1	137.6	165.1	192.7	220.2	247.7	302.8
43	27.55	55.10	82.60	110.2	137.7	165.3	192.8	220.4	247.9	303.0
44	27.57	55.14	82.72	110.3	137.9	165.4	193.0	220.6	248.2	303.3
45	27.60	55.19	82.79	110.4	138.0	165.6	193.2	220.8	248.4	303.6
46	27.62	55.24	82.86	110.5	138.1	165.7	193.4	221.0	248.6	303.8
47	27.65	55.29	82.94	110.6	138.2	165.9	193.5	221.2	248.8	304.1
48	27.67	55.34	83.01	110.7	138.4	166.0	193.7	221.4	249.0	304.4
49	27.69	55.39	83.08	110.8	138.5	166.2	193.9	221.6	249.2	304.6
50	27.72	55.44	83.15	110.9	138.6	166.3	194.0	221.7	249.5	304.9
51	27.74	55.48	83.23	111.0	138.7	166.4	194.2	221.9	249.7	305.2
52	27.77	55.53	83.30	111.1	138.8	166.6	194.4	222.1	249.9	305.4
53	27.79	55.58	83.37	111.2	139.0	166.7	194.5	222.3	250.1	305.7
54	27.82	55.63	83.44	111.3	139.1	166.9	194.7	222.5	250.3	306.0
55	27.84	55.68	83.52	111.4	139.2	167.0	194.9	222.7	250.6	306.2
56	27.86	55.73	83.59	111.4	139.3	167.2	195.0	222.9	250.8	306.5
57	27.89	55.78	83.66	111.6	139.4	167.3	195.2	223.1	251.0	306.8
58	27.91	55.82	83.74	111.6	139.6	167.5	195.4	223.3	251.2	307.0
59	27.94	55.87	83.81	111.7	139.7	167.6	195.6	223.5	251.4	307.3
Horz. Dist.	91.93	183.9	275.8	367.7	459.7	552	644	735	827	1011

TABLE III.—(Continued) Note.—The values given on this page are for 100 feet only. To obtain difference of elevation for any other distance, multiply tabular value for given angle by observed stadia intercept. Example: Vertical angle 198 22. Observed stadia intercept 3.20 feet. 31.28 \times 3.20 = 100.09 feet = correct difference of elevation required.

′	17°	18°	19°	20°	21°	22°	23°	24°	25°	26°	27°	28°	29°	
0	27.96	29.39	30.78	32.14	33.46	34.73	35.97	37.16	38.30	39.40	40.45	41.45	42.40 42.42 42.43 42.45 42.46	0
1	27.99	29.42	30.81	32.16	33.48	34.75	35.99	37.18	38.32	39.42	40.47	41.47	42.42	1
2	28.01	29.44	30.83	32.18	33.50	34.77	36.01	37.20	38.34	39.44	40.49	41.48	42.43	2
3	28.04	29.47	30.85	32.21	33.52	34.80	36.03	37.22	38.36	39.46	40.51	41.50	42.45	3
4 5	28.06	29.49	30.87	32.23	33.54	34.82 34.84	36.05 36.07	37.23 37.25	38.38 38.40	39.47	40.52	41.52	42.48 42.48	4 5
6	28 10	29 53	30.92	32 27	33 50	34.86	36.09	37 27	38 41	30 51	40 55	41 55	42 40	. 6
7	28.13	29.56	30.94	32.30	33.61	34.88	36.11	37.29	38.43	39.51	40.57	41.57	42.51	7
8	28.15	29.58	30.97	32.32	33.63	34.90	36.13	37.31	38.45	39.55	40.59	41.58	42.53	7 8 9
9 10 ·	28.18	29.60	30.99	32.34	33.65	34.92	36.15 36.17	37.33	38.47	39.56	40.61	41.60	42.49 42.51 42.53 42.54 42.56	9 10
11 12	28.25	29.67	31.06	32.41	33.72	34.98	36.21	37.39	38.53	39.61	40.66	41.65	42.58 42.59 42.60 42.62 42.64	11 12
13	28.27	29.69	31.08	32.43	33.74	35.00	36.23	37.41	38.55	39.63	40.68	41.67	42.60	13
14.	28.30	29.72	31.10	32.45	33.76	35.02	36.25	37.43	38.56	39.65	40.69	41.68	42.62	14
15		1		:	1								1	15
16 17	28.34	29.76	31.15 31.17	32.49	33.80	35.07	36.29	37.47	38.60	39.69	40.72	41.71	42.65	16 17
18	28.39	29.81	3119	32.54	33.84	35.11	36.33	37.51	38.64	39.72	40.76	41.74	42.68	18
19	28.42	29.83	31.22	32.56	33.87	35.13	36.35	37.53	38.66	39.74	40.78	41.76	42.70	19
20			31.19 31.22 31.24											20
21	28.47	29.88	31.26	32.61	33.91	35.17	36.39	37.56	38.69	39.78	40.81	41.79	42.72 42.74 42.76 42.77	21
22	28.49	29.90	31.28	32.63	33.93	35.19	30.41	37.58	38.71	39.79	40.82	41.81	42.74	22 23
22 28 24	28.54	29.93	31.33	32 67	33 97	35 23	36 45	37.60	38 75	39.82	40.86	41 84	42.70	24
25	28.56	29.97	31.35	32.70	33.99	35.25	36.47	37.64	38.76	39.85	40.88	41.86	42.78	25
26	28.58	30.00	31.38	32.72	34.01	35.27	36.49	37.66	38.78	39.86	40.89	41.87	42.80	26
27	28.61	30.02	31.40	32.74	34.04	35.29	36.51	37.68	38.80	39.88	40.91	41.89	42.82	27 28
28	28.63	30.04	31.42	32.76	34.06	35.31	36.53	37.70	38.82	39.90	40.92	41.90	42.83	28
29 30	28.66 28.68	30.07	31.43	32.78 32.80	34.08 34.10	35.34 35.36	36.55 36.57	37.72 37.74	38.84 38.86	39.92 39.93	20.94 40.96	41.92	42.80 42.82 42.83 42.85 42.86	29 30
31	28 70	30.11	31.49	32.83	34 12	35.38	36.59	37.76	38.88	39.95	40.98	41.95	42.88	31
32	28.73	30.14	31.51	32 85	34.14	35.40	36.61	37.77	38.89	39.97	40.99	41.97	42.89	32
33	28.75	30.16	31.54	32.87	34.16	35.42	36.63	37.79	38.91	39.99	41.01	41-99	42.91	33
34	28.77	30.19	31.56	32.89	34.18	35.44	36.65	37.81	38.93	40.00	41.02	42.00	42.92	34
35	28.80	30.21	31.58	32.91	34.21	35.46	36.67	37.83	38.95	40.02	41.04	42.02	42.88 42.89 42.91 42.92 42.94	35
36 37	28.82	30.23	31.60	32.93	34.23	35.48	36.69	37.85	38.97	40.04	41.06	42.03	42.95	36 37
38	20.00	30.20	31.00	32.90	34 97	35 52	36 73	37 80	39 00	40.00	41 00	42.06	42 98	38
39	28.89	30.30	31.67	33.00	34.29	35.54	36.75	37.91	39.02	40.09	41.11	42.08	43.00	39
40	28,92	30.32	31.69	33.02	34.31	35.56	36.77	37.93	39.04	40.11	41.12	42.09	42.97 42.98 43.00 43.01	40
41	28.94	30.36	31.72 31.74	33.05	34.33	35.58	36.79	37.95	39.06	40.13	41.14	42.11	43.03	41
42	28.96	30.37	31.74 31.76	33.07	34.35	35.60	36.80	37.96	39.08	40.14	41.10	42.12	43.04	42 43
43 44	20.99	30 41	31.78	33.11	34 40	35.64	36.84	38.00	39.11	40.18	41.10	42.15	43.07	44
45	29.04	30.44	31.81	33.13	34.42	35.66	36.86	38.02	39.13	40.20	41.21	42.17	43.09	45
46	29.06	30.46	31.83	33.15	34.44	35.68	36.88	38.04	39.15	40.21	41.22	42.19	43.10 43.12 43.13 43.15 43.16	46
47	29.08	30.49	31.85	33.18	34.46	35.70	36.90	38.06	39.17	40.23	41.24	42.21	43.12	47
48	29.11	30.51	31.87	33.20	34.48	35.72	30.92	38.08	30.50	40.24	41.20	42.22	43.13	48 49
49 50	29.13 29.15	30.55	31.92	33.24	34.52	35.76	36.96	38.11	39.22	40.28	41.29	42.25	43.16	50
51													43.17 43.18 43.20 43.21	51
52	29.20	30.60	31.96	33.28	34.57	35.80	37.00	38.15	39.26	40.31	41.32	42.28	43.18	52
53	29.23	30.62	31.99	33.31	34.59	35.83	37.02	38.17	39.27	40.33	41.34	42.30	43.20	53
54 55	29.25 29.27	30.65	32.01 32.02	33.33	34.61 34.63	35.85 35.87	37.04 37.06	38.19 38.21	39.29	40.35	41.35	42.31	43.21	54 55
56														56
57	29.32	30.72	32.07	33.39	34.67	35.91	37.10	38.25	39.35	40,40	41.41	42.36	43.26	57
58	29.34	30.74	32.09	33.41	34.69	35.93	37.12	38.26	39.36	40.42	41.42	42.37	43.24 43.26 43.27 43.29	58 - 59
59														
Horz.	190.96	89.93	88.86	87.74	გი.57	გა. 36	54.10	82.80	81.47	80.09	78.68	11.23	10.70	Hor: Dist

CONVERSION OF FEET TO DECIMALS OF A MILE

Feet	Mile	Feet	Mile	Feet	Mile	Feet	Mile	Feet	Mile	Feet	Mile	Feet	Mile
100 110 120 130 140 150 160 170 180 190	0.019 0.021 0.023 0.025 0.026 0.028 0.030 0.032 0.034 0.036	600 610 620 630 640 650 660 670 680 690	0.114 0.116 0.118 0.120 0.122 0.124 0.125 0.127 0.129	1100 1110 1120 1130 1140 1150 1160 1170 1180 1190	0.208 0.210 0.212 0.214 0.216 0.218 0.219 0.221 0.223 0.223	1600 1610 1620 1630 1640 1650 1660 1670 1680 1690	0.303 0.305 0.307 0.309 0.311 0.313 0.314 0.316 0.318	2100 2110 2120 2130 2140 2150 2160 2170 2180 2190	0.398 0.400 0.402 0.404 0.405 0.407 0.409 0.411 0.413 0.415	2600 2610 2620 2630 2640 2650 2660 2670 2680 2690	0.492 0.494 0.496 0.498 0.500 0.502 0.504 0.506 0.508	3100 3110 3120 3130 3140 3150 3160 3170 3180 3190	0.587 0.589 0.591 0.593 0.595 0.596 0.598 0.600 0.602 0.604
200 210 220 230 240 250 260 270 280 290	0.038 0.040 0.042 0.044 0.046 0.047 0.049 0.051 0.053 0.055	700 710 720 730 740 750 760 770 780 790	0.133 0.134 0.136 0.138 0.140 0.142 0.144 0.146 0.148	1200 1210 1220 1230 1240 1250 1260 1270 1280 1290	0.227 0.229 0.231 0.233 0.235 0.236 0.238 0.240 0.242 0.244	1700 1710 1720 1730 1740 1750 1760 1770 1780 1790	0.322 0.324 0.326 0.328 0.330 0.331 0.333 0.335 0.337	2200 2210 2220 2230 2240 2250 2260 2270 2280 2290	0.417 0.419 0.420 0.422 0.424 0.426 0.428 0.430 0.432 0.434	2700 2710 2720 2730 2740 2750 2760 2770 2780 2290	0.511 0.513 0.515 0.517 0.519 0.521 0.523 0.525 0.527 0.529	3200 3210 3220 3230 3240 3250 3260 3270 3280 3290	0.606 0.608 0.610 0.612 0.614 0.616 0.617 0.619 0.621 0.623
300 310 320 330 340 350 360 370 380 390	0.057 0.059 0.061 0.062 0.064 0.066 0.068 0.070 0.072 0.074	800 810 820 830 840 850 860 870 880 890	0.152 0.153 0.155 0.157 0.159 0.161 0.163 0.165 0.167 0.169	1300 1310 1320 1330 1340 1350 1360 1370 1380 1390	0.246 0.248 0.250 0.252 0.254 0.256 0.257 0.259 0.261 0.263	1800 1810 1820 1830 1840 1850 1860 1870 1880 1890	0.341 0.343 0.345 0.347 0.350 0.352 0.354 0.356 0.358	2300 2310 2320 2330 2340 2350 2260 2370 2380 2390	0.436 0.438 0.439 0.441 0.443 0.445 0.447 0.449 0.451	2800 2810 2820 2830 2840 2850 2860 2870 2880 2890	0.530 0.532 0.534 0.536 0.538 0.540 0.542 0.544 0.546 0.547	3300 3310 3320 3330 3340 3350 3360 3370 3380 3390	0.625 0.627 0.629 0.631 0.633 0.644 0.666 0.688 0.640 0.642
400 410 420 430 440 450 460 470 480 490	0.076 0.078 0.080 0.082 0.084 0.086 0.088 0.089 0.091 0.093	900 910 920 930 940 950 960 970 980 990	0.170 0.172 0.174 0.176 0.180 0.181 0.183 0.185 0.187	1400 1410 1420 1430 1440 1450 1460 1470 1480 1490	0.265 0.267 0.269 0.271 0.273 0.275 0.276 0.278 0.280 0.282	1900 1910 1920 1930 1940 1950 1960 1970 1980 1990	0.360 0.362 0.364 0.366 0.367 0.369 0.371 0.373 0.375	2400 2410 2420 2430 2440 2450 2460 2470 2480 2490	0.455 0.456 0.458 0.460 0.462 0.464 0.466 0.468 0.470 0.472	2900 2910 2920 2930 2940 2950 2960 2970 2980 2990	0.549 0.551 0.553 0.555 0.557 0.559 0.561 0.562 0.564 0.566	3400 3410 3420 3430 3440 3450 3460 3470 3480 3490	0.644 0.646 0.648 0.650 0.652 0.653 0.655 0.657 0.659 0.661
500 510 520 530 540 550 560 570 580 590	0.095 0.097 0.098 0.100 0.102 0.104 0.106 0.108 0.110 0.112	1000 1010 1020 1030 1040 1050 1060 1070 1080 1090	0.189 0.191 0.193 0.195 0.197 0.199 0.200 0.202 0.204 0.206	1500 1510 1520 1530 1540 1550 1560 1570 1580 1590	0.284 0.286 0.288 0.290 0.292 0.294 0.295 0.297 0.299 0.301	2000 2010 2020 2030 2040 2050 2060 2070 2080 2090	0.379 0.381 0.383 0.384 0.386 0.388 0.390 0.392 0.394 0.396	2500 2510 2520 2530 2540 2550 2560 2570 2580 2590	0.474 0.475 0.477 0.479 0.481 0.483 0.485 0.487 0.489 0.491	3000 3010 3020 3030 3040 3050 3060 3070 3080 3090	0.568 0.570 0.572 0.574 0.576 0.578 0.580 0.581 0.583 0.585	3500 3510 3520 3530 3540 3550 3560 3570 3580 3590	0.663 0.665 0.667 0.669 0.670 0.672 0.674 0.676 0.678 0.680

TABLE IV.—GRADIENTER TABLE FOR THE DETERMINATION OF DISTANCES

er of enter ons	Rod intercept											
Number of gradienter divisions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Number of gradienter divisions	
10	1,000	2,000	3,000	4,000	5,000	6,000	7,000	8,000	9,000	10,000	10	
11	909	1,818	2,727	3,636	4,545	5,455	6,364	7,273	8,182	9,091	11	
12	833	1,667	2,500	3,333	4,167	5,000	5,833	6,667	7,500	8333,	12	
13	769	1,538	2,308	3,077	3,846	4,615	5,384	6,154	6,923	7,692	13 -	
14	714	1,429	2,143	2,857	3,571	4,286	5,000	5,714	6,429	7,143	14	
15	667	1,333	2,000	2,667	3,333	4,000	4,667	5,333	6,000	6,667	15	
16	625	1,250	1,875	2,500	3,125	3,750	4,375	5,000	5,625	6,250	16	
17	588	1,176	1,765	2,353	2,941	3,529	4,110	4,706	5,294	5,882	17	
18	556	1,111	1,667	2,222	2,778	3,333	3,889	4,444	5,000	5,556	18	
19	526	1,053	1,579	2,105	2,632	3,158	3,684	4,211	4,737	5,263	19	
20	500	1,000	1,500	2,000	2,500	3,000	3,500	4,000	4,500	5,000	20	
21	476	952	1,429	1,905	2,381	2,857	3,333	3,810	4,286	4,762	21	
22	455	909	1,364	1,818	2,273	2,727	3,182	3,636	4,091	4,545	22	
23	435	870	1,304	1,739	2,174	2,609	3,043	3,478	3,913	4,348	23	
24	417	833	1,250	1,667	2,083	2,500	2,917	3,333	3,750	4,167	24	
25	400	800	1,200	1,600	2,000	2,400	2,800	3,200	3,600	4,000	25	
26	385	769	1,154	1,538	1,923	2,308	2,692	3,077	3,462	3,846	26	
27	370	741	1,111	1,481	1,852	2,222	2,593	2,963	3,333	3,704	27	
28	357	714	1,071	1,429	1,786	2,143	2,500	2,857	3,214	3,571	28	
29	345	.690	1,035	1,379	1,724	2,069	2,414	2,759	3,103	3,448	29	
30	333	667	1,000	1,333	1,667	2,000	2,333	2,667	3,000	3,333	30	
31	323	645	968	1,290	1,613	1,935	2,258	2,581	2,903	3,226	31	
32	313	625	938	1,250	1,563	1,875	2,188	2,500	2,813	3,125	32	
33	303	606	909	1,212	1,515	1,818	2,121	2,424	2,727	3,030	33	
34	294	588	882	1,176	1,471	1,765	2,059	2,353	2,647	2,941	34	
35	286	571	857	1,143	1,429	1,714	2,000	2,286	2,571	2,857	35	
36	278	556	833	1,111	1,389	1,667	1,944	2,222	2,500	2,778	36	
· 37	270	541	811	1,081	1,351	1,622	1,892	2,162	2,432	2,703	37	
38	263	526	789	1,053	1,316	1,579	1,842	2,105	2,368	2,632	38	
39	256	513	769	1,026	1,282	1,538	1,795	2,051	2,308	2,564	39	
40	250	500	750	1,000	1,250	1,500	1,750	2,000	2,250	2,500	40	
41	244	488	732	976	1,220	1,463	1,707	1,951	2,195	2,439	41	
42	238	476	714	952	1,190	1,429	1,667	1,905	2,143	2,381	42	
43	233	465	698.	930	1,163	1,395	1,628	1,860	2,093	2,326	43	
44	227	455	. 682	909	1,136	1,364	1,591	1,818	2,045	2,273	44	
45	222	444	667	889	1,111	1,333	1,556	1,778	2,000	2,222	45	
46	217	435	652	870	1,087	1,304	1,522	1,739	1,957	2,174	46	
47	213	426	638	851	1,064	1,277	1,489	1,702	1,915	2,128	47	
48	208	417	625	833	1,042	1,250	1,458	1,667	1,875	2,083	48	
49	204	408	612	816	1,020	1,224	1,429	1,633	1,837	2,041	49	
50	200	400	600	800	1,000	1,200	1,400	1,600	1,800	2,000	50	

Table IV.—Gradienter Table for the Determination of Distances (Continued)

er of enter ons					Rod in	tercept					er of enter ons
Number of gradienter divisions	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	Number of gradienter divisions
10	11,000	12,000	13,000	14,000	15,000	16,000	17,000	18,000	19,000	20,000	10
11	10,000	10,909	11,818	12,727	13,636	14,545	15,455	16,364	17,273	18,182	11
12	9,167	10,000	10,833	16,667	12,500	13,333	14,167	15,000	15,833	16,667	12
13	8,462	9,231	10,000	10,769	11,538	12,308	13,077	13,846	14,615	15,385	13
14	7,857	8,571	9,286	10,0ა0	10,714	11,429	12,143	12,857	13,571	14,286	14
15	7,333	8,000	8,667	9,333	10,000	10,667	11,333	12,000	12,667	13,333	15
16	6,875	7,500	8,125	8,750	9,375	10,000	10,625	11,250	11,875	12,500	16
17	6,471	7,059	7,647	8,235	8,824	9,412	10,000	10,588	11,176	11,765	17
18	6,111	6,667	7,222	7,778	8,333	8,889	9,444	10,000	10,556		18
19	5,789	6,316	6,842	7,368	7,895	8,421	8,947	9,474	10,000	10,526	19
20	5,500	6,000	6,500	7,000	7,500	8,000	8,500	9,000	9,500	10,000	20
21	5,238	5,714	6,190	6,667	7,143	7,619	8,095	8,571	9,048	9,524	21
22	5,000	5,455	5,909	6,364	6,818	7,273	7,727	8,182	8,636	9,091	22
23	4,783	5,217	5,652	6,087	6,522	6,957	7,391	7,826	8,261	8,696	23
24	4,583	5,000	5,417	5,833	6,250	6,667	7,083	7,500	7,917	8,333	24
25	4,400	4,800	5,200	5,600	6,000	6,400	6,800	7,200	7,600	8,000	25
26	4,231	4,615	5,000	5,385	5,769	6,154	6,538	6,923	7,308	7,692	26
27	4,074	4,444	4,815	5,185	5,556	5,926	6,296	6,667	7,037	7,407	27
28	3,929	4,286	4,643	5,000	5,357	5,714	6,071	6,429	6,786	7,143	28
29	3,793	4,138	4,483	4,828	5,172	5,517	5,862	6,207	6,552	6,897	29
30	3,667	4,000	4,333	4,667	5,000	5,333	5,667	6,000	6,333	6,667	30
31	3,548	3,871	4,194	4,516	4,839	5,161	5,484	5,806	6,129	6,452	31
32	3,438	3,750	4,063	4,375	4,688	5,000	5,313	5,625	5,938	6,250	32
33	3,333		3,939	4,242	4,545	4,848	5,152	5,455	5,758	6,061	33
34	3,235		3,824	4,118	4,412		5,000	5,294	5,588	5,882	34
35	3,143	3,429	3,714	4,000	4,286		4,857	5,143	5,429	5,714	35
36	3,056	1	3,611	3,889	4,167		4,722	5,000	5,278	5,556	36
37	2,973		3,514	3,784	4,054	4,324	4,595	4,865	5,135	5,405	37
38	2,895	1	3,421	3,684	3,947		4,474	4,737	5,000	5,263	38
39	2,820	3,077	3,333	3,590	3,846	4,102		4,615	4,872	5,128	39
40	2,750		3,250	3,500	3,750	4,000	4,250	4,500	4,750	5,000	40
41	2,683		3,171	3,415	3,659	3,902	4,146	4,390	4,634	4,878	41
42	2,619	2,857	3,095	3,333	3,571	3,810		4,286		4,762	42
43	2,558		3,023	3,256	3,488	3,721	3,953	4,186	4,419	4,651	43
44	2,500		2,954	3,182	3,409	3,636	3,864	4,091	4,318	4,545	44
45	2,444	2,667	2,889	3,111	3,333	3,555	3,778	4,000	4,222	4,444	45
46	2,391	2,609	2,826		3,261	3,478	3,696	3,913	4,130	4,348	46
47	2,340		2,766		3,191	3,404	3,617	3,830	4,043	4,255	47
48	2,292				3,125				3,958	4,167	48
49	2,245		2,653		3,061	3,265	3,469	3,673	3,878	4,082	49
50	2,200		2,600				1	3,600		4,000	50
	1 -,-50		-,=50	-,	1,100				1 5,230	1 .,550	

TABLE V.—TABLE FOR DETERMINING HORIZONTAL DISTANCES BY MEANS OF THE VERTICAL ARC

Min- utes	Percent- age of				Ro	d interc	ept in f	eet			
of arc	one stadia angle	6	7	8	9	10	. 11	12	13	14	15
1	2.908	20,632	24,071	27,510	30,948	34,387	37,826	41,264	44,703	48,142	51,581
2	5.817	10,314	12,033	13,752	15,471	17,190	18,909	20,628	22,347	24,066	25,785
3	8.725	6,877	8,023	9,169	10,315	11,461	12,607	13,753	14,899	16,045	17,192
4	11.633	5,758	6,017	6,877	7,736	8,596	9,456	10,315	11,175	12,034	12,894
5	14.542	4,126	4,813	5,501	6,188	6,876	7,564	8,251	8,939	9,626	10,314
6	17.450	3,438	4,011	4,584	5,157	5,730	6,303	6,876	7,449	8,022	8,595
7	20.358	2,947	3,438	3,930	4,421	4,912	5,403	5,894	6,386	6,877	7,368
8	23,266	2,579	3,009	3,438	3,868	4,298	4,728	5,158	5,587	6,017	6,447
9	26.175	2,292	2,674	3,056	3,438	3,820	4,202	4,584	4,966	5,248	5,730
10	29.083	2,063	2,407	2,750	3,094	3,438	3,782	4,126	4,469	4,813	5,157
11	31.991	1,875	2,188	2,500	2,813	3,125	3,438	3,550	4,063	4,375	4,688
12	34.899	1,719	2,006	2,292	2,579	2,865	3,152	3,438	3,725	4,011	4,298
13	37.807	1,587	1,852	2,116	2,381	2,645	2,910	3,174	3,438	3,703	3,968
14	40.715	1,474	1,719	1,965	2,210	2,456	2,702	2,947	3,193	3,438	3,684
15	43.623	1,375	1,604	1,834	2,063	2,292	2,521	2,750	2,980	3,209	3,438
16	46.531	1,289	1,504	1,718	1,933	2,148	2,363	2,578	2,792	3,007	3,222
17	49.439	1,213	1,415	1,618	1,820	2,022	2,224	2,426	2,629	2,831	3 033

EXPLANATION FOR TABLE VI

Explanation of tables for temperature correction for altitude scales:

Illustration.—At the bottom of a mountain the temperature is 70°F., and the hand on the barometer points to 2000 ft. The correction as noted at 70° is 82 ft. which has to be added, as have all temperature corrections above 50°F., making the reading 2082.

If at the top of the mountain the reading is 6000 ft. and the temperature is 20° the correction will be 367 ft. and is to be subtracted in king the reading 5633.

TABLE VII.—AIREY'S TABLE FOR THE DETERMINATION OF ALTITUDE BY MEANS OF THE BAROMETER*

Aneroid Groot- Teight rected in feet feet										
30.94 50 28.23 2550 25.75 5050 23.50 7550 21.44 10.050 30.88	or cor- rected barom- eter,	in	or cor- rected barom- eter,	in	or cor- rected barom- eter,	in	or cor- rected barom- eter,	in	or cor- rected barom- eter,	in
	30.94 30.88 30.83 30.771 30.66 30.54 30.38 30.38 30.38 30.38 30.38 30.38 30.38 30.38 30.38 30.38 30.38 29.88 29.87 29.65 29.34	100 150 200 300 300 400 450 600 650 700 950 1000 1150 1120 11200 1250 1300 1400 1350 1400 1550 1400 1550 1500 1600 1650 1700 1750 1800 1850 1850 1850 1850 1850 1850 18	28. 28 28. 18 28. 107 28. 07 27. 97 27. 87 27. 76 27. 2550 2650 2650 2750 2850 2750 2850 2950 2950 2950 3000 3150 3250 3350 3350 3350 3450 3550 3550 3600 3550 3600 3550 4000 4150 4250 4450 4450 4450 4450 4450 4450 44	25. 75 25. 66 25. 61 25. 62 25. 52 25. 52 25. 52 25. 52 25. 28 25. 28 25. 28 25. 29 25. 20 25. 20 27. 27. 20 27. 5050 5150 5150 5150 5250 5350 5350 5350 5550 5550 5550 5750 5850 6000 6055 6000 6250 6250 6350 6250 6350 6450 6550 6550 6550 6550 6550 6750 6750 67	23, 45 23, 41 23, 37 23, 28, 28, 28, 29, 22, 29, 29, 21, 20, 22, 20, 22, 20, 22, 20, 22, 20, 22, 20, 22, 20, 22, 20, 22, 20, 22, 20, 22, 20, 22, 20, 22, 20, 20	7550 7600 7650 77600 77650 77500 77500 78500 78500 78500 78500 8000 81500 82500 82500 83500 84500 84500 84500 84500 84500 84500 84500 84500 8700 91500 91500 9250 94500 94500 94500 97500 98500 97600 97500 98500 98500 98500 98500 98500	21.44 21.40 21.36 21.32 21.28 21.24 21.20 21.16 21.108 21.05 21.05 21.01 20.97 20.85 20.85 20.85 20.74 20.66 20.63 20.55 20.55 20.55 20.47 20.40 20.36 20.29 20.29 20.29 20.29 20.35 20.47 20.40 20.40 20.36	10,050 10,100 10,100 10,250 10,250 10,350 10,350 10,400 10,450 10,550 10,750 10,650 10,750 10,800 10,650 11,050 11,150 11		

^{*} After P. R. Jameson.

TABLE VIII.—CONVENTIONAL SYMBOLS

	Stations	å	Church
×	Location or station	Ğ	School
O	Turning point		Fence
Δ	Instrument station		Road
	Elevations		Private road
B.M		++-	Railroad
x 1232	Bench mark	$[\pm]$	Cemetery
967	Elevation of outcrop at	父	Mine or quarry
	station		Wells
(846)	Elevation reduced to common datum plane	0	Location
		0	Well drilling
	Land lines	•	Oil well
	Section line	₩	Gas well
\Rightarrow	Section corner	ф	Dry well
	Township line	\$	Water in sand
	Water		Oil and water
9 1 1	Spring Intermittent stream or drainage course Stream Lake or pond	*	Gas, oil and water
		•	Show of oil
		な	- Show of gas
		Ø	Location abandoned
عالات	Swamp or marsh	ø	Oil well abandoned
	Culture	漠	Gas well abandoned
0	House		*.

TABLE IX.—TABLE OF ERAS AND PERIODS

EraPeriodE poch Cenozoic Quaternary Recent Pleistocene Tertiary Pliocene Miocene -Oligocene Eocene Mesozoic Cretaceous Jurassic Triassic Paleozoic Carboniferous Permian Pennsylvanian Mississippian Devonian Silurian Ordovician Cambrian Proterozoic Algonkian

Keweenawan Huronian

Archean

Laurentian Keewatin

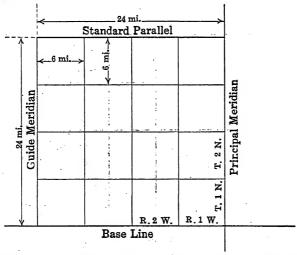
TABLE X.-LAND SURVEYS

In a number of the older states, such as Virginia, Kentucky, Louisiana, and Texas, the original surveys were by "metes and bounds," and no general system was recognized. Later a system of rectangular survey was adopted and is now in general use. This consists essentially of subdividing the country into quadrangles by guide meridians and standard parallels, 24 miles apart, beginning at a point where a principal meridian intersects a base line. The quadrangles thus formed are further subdivided into tracts six miles square called townships. These are numbered meridionally into ranges and latitudinally into townships, beginning at the initial point and numbering consecutively in the four cardinal directions.

The township is further subdivided into 36 tracts one mile square, called sections. These are numbered consecutively, beginning at the northeast corner and proceeding to the west boundary line of the township, then south to the next tier and over to the east boundary line, continuing in this manner till all are numbered.

The section is subdivided into quarters and forties (see accompanying sketches, pp. 293-294) and numbered and designated according to the points of the compass. In some instances two forties may be referred to as a half of a quarter.

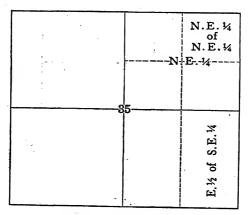
In referring to a given tract of land one would describe it as follows: the N. ½ NE. ¼ NW. ¼ sec. 36, T. 96 N., R. 43 W. In states where more than one principal meridian occurs the number of the meridian referred to must also be given.



The relation of townships and ranges to base line and principal meridian.

6	5	:: 4	3	2	1
7	8	9	10	1 1	12
18	17	16	15	1 4	13
19	20	21	22	23	24
30	29	28	27	26	25
31	32	33	34	35	36

R.46 W.
Township subdivisions.



Section subdivisions.



Example: Isogonic On the (After U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey.)

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